

SOCIAL EDUCATION

VOLUME XXI

DECEMBER, 1957

NUMBER 8

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OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
PUBLISHED IN COLLABORATION WITH THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

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Published monthly September through May

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Teaneck, New Jersey

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The National Council for the Social Studies is the Department of Social Studies of the National Education Association of the United States. Membership is open to any person or institution interested in teaching the social studies. Each member receives the yearbook, a subscription

to SOCIAL EDUCATION, and occasional other publications. Dues are \$5.00 for teachers with salaries under \$3,600 and \$7.00 for teachers with salaries over \$3,600. For further information, write to the Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Editorial office: 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Correspondence in regard to manuscripts and reviews should be addressed to the Editor, in regard to advertising to the Business Manager.

Subscription without membership is \$5.00 a year; single copies 75 cents. Address SOCIAL EDUCATION, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Copyright, 1957, by the National Council for the Social Studies

Published monthly except June, July, August, and September at 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. by the National Council for the Social Studies. Entered as second-class matter December 29, 1936, at the post office at Washington, D.C., and Menasha, Wisconsin, under the act of March 3, 1879. Accepted for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in the act of February 28, 1925. Printed in the U.S.A.

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Editor's Page

SPUTNIK¹

Truro, Massachusetts, October 16, 1957. We saw Sputnik. It passed over Truro, or rather over Cape Cod Bay to the west, between 5:59 and 6:03 A.M., daylight saving time. We know the time is correct because the clock in the Town Hall on the hill half a mile away struck six shortly after we caught our first glimpse of the satellite streaking out of the northwest. To be sure, the town clock is not what one would call a precision instrument. There have been times, especially after storms which have taken down power lines and cut off the electricity, when the town clock has lagged several hours behind the other clocks and watches in Truro, and things being as they are in this small town no one has gotten around to resetting it for several days. But we *know* the town clock was right this morning because we checked it against our watch, which we had set last night on true Greenwich Meridian Time while listening on a short-wave receiver to a BBC broadcast from London.

"We've really done it!" That was our first involuntary reaction when Sputnik appeared in the northwestern sky. But we quickly got hold of ourselves and dismissed such a traitorous thought from our mind. "We" hadn't done it. "They" had. The Russians. The mid-twentieth century isn't a world of "we." It is a divided world, a world of "we" and "they," of "us" and "them." Although in science and technology man has advanced to the point where he is starting on his conquest of outer space, in his relations with his fellows he is only one step removed from the cave dwellers. Maybe not even a step, for the appearance of Sputnik has stimulated the demand for the construction of bomb-proof shelters deep underground and capable of holding millions, and it may yet be that in the not-too-distant future while ever larger man-made satellites streak overhead men will once again huddle together in rocky caverns, fearful and dismayed.

BETWEEN NONSENSE AND HYSTERIA

By the time these words appear in print several weeks will have passed and Sputnik will probably be relegated to the back pages of the newspapers. As one of his adaptations to a rapidly changing world, man has learned to accept even the near-miraculous with a shrug of the shoulders, and the expression, "So what?" has saved many of us from the travail of serious reflection.

It may be that the "so what" attitude is one means by which men maintain their equilibrium. As long as men do not take themselves too seriously and find it possible even to laugh at themselves, there is plenty of room for hope. We heard one radio announcer say in reference to Sputnik that "this is no joking matter." If by this he meant that it is the height of folly to belittle the Russian achievement, then we fully agree. But if he meant that every reference to Sputnik must be voiced in foreboding tones, then he may well be as wrong as a man can be. Somehow or other it was comforting to hear a news broadcast from a Canadian station about five men in Kitchener, Ontario, who had just formed a company they called Horizons Unlimited and paid \$2.70 to the "Japanese Space Travel Association" for an acre of land on Mars. Asked what they expected to do with the land the men said they "might some day rent it to the United Nations as a parking lot for space ships."

Nonsense of this kind will not, to be sure, solve any problems. But who is ready to argue that it is not at least as healthy as the wild talk of beating the Russians in a race for control of outer space and, if need be, of carrying into the heavens the bitter rivalries that now divide the East and the West into two seemingly irreconcilable worlds?

Somewhere between nonsense and hysteria there are facts to be faced and truths to be accepted. That the Soviets were first to put a satellite into its orbit is now a matter of history. That the United States and other nations will soon have other satellites whirling around the earth is, it would seem, a thoroughly reasonable prediction. As Jawaharlal Nehru put it in a speech in Hong Kong on October 14, "if one country imagines

¹ Reprinted from the November 11, 1957, issue of the *Civic Leader* with the permission of the publisher, The Civic Education Service, 1733 K Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

that it has got a lead in science and technology over another, well a few months later the other country takes a jump and takes a lead. So they go on like this."

And so we shall continue, Russians and British and French and Canadians and Americans and all the nations of the earth, each of us seeking to outdistance the others. But whether this competition brings us in the end to good or to evil depends upon our answer to the all important question now before us, "To what end?" For this question, science has no answer, and can have no answer, for the problem we face is not one of what we can or cannot do but simply one of what we *want* to do. In brief, our fate lies not in our achievements, actual or potential, but in our aspirations.

THE PROMISE

As far as future Sputniks are concerned, we shall, no doubt continue to hedge our bets and build in terms of both war and peace. And this is as it must be, for the world is not ours to shape as we would. But in the long run the final choice has to be made, not by one nation alone, nor by two nations, but by all nations and all men everywhere, for we are dealing now with the ultimate weapons and the very existence of life on earth hangs in the balance.

Fortunately, there are grounds for hope, among them the enterprise in international cooperation known as Geophysical Year. It is reasonable to assume that most, if not all, of the 8,000 scientists from 64 nations who are cooperating in what may well be the most ambitious research program ever undertaken would insist that the Russians have won an "honor," not a "victory," by being the first to create an artificial satellite. Some evidence in support of this assumption is available in the form of public expressions of congratulation from scientists of many countries, including the United States.

"Project Vanguard," America's carefully developed plan for launching a man-made satellite, was not intended to be merely another move in the "cold war." On the contrary, it was—and is—designed as part of an international program to wrest from the very heavens themselves data that scientists of all nations can use to advance the frontiers of knowledge. The raw data will be radioed to earth picked up by a carefully planned network of stations scattered throughout many nations; and relayed to central headquarters in Washington, D.C., where it will be processed in specially designed computing machines. By agree-

ment with the other nations participating in Geophysical Year, this information will then be made freely available to scientists everywhere. As part of this cooperative venture, scientists of other nations have agreed to share their findings. Neither "Project Vanguard" nor any of the other projects of Geophysical Year have been planned as competitive undertakings.

What is the nature of the data we hope to collect from our own and the Soviet rockets yet to be launched? As a partial answer to this question, we quote a brief summary statement from a scientist attached to the Naval Research Laboratory. His article, "Research at the Threshold of Space," appeared in the May 1957 issue of *Radio and TV News*. "It is expected," he wrote, "that these coordinated and correlated observations will lead to a number of major breakthroughs in such fields as meteorology, ionospheric physics, aurora and airglow, solar activity, cosmic rays, geomagnetism, latitude and longitude, oceanography, glaciology, gravity, and seismology. In addition to scientific value, such breakthroughs could be of great practical importance, possibly leading to better weather forecasting, improved radio communications, better navigation, and more effective means of mineral prospecting."

The sight of Sputnik streaking through the sky above the small community in which we live was a thrilling and never-to-be-forgotten experience. While the stroke of the clock in the town hall reminded us of the present, the moving point of light arcing through the skies forced our thoughts into the future, for Sputnik is only the beginning of the beginning of a new era of mankind's colorful history.

There will be other satellites, among them those the United States will shortly launch. We look forward to seeing the first United States satellite in the sky. We want to look up, and we want other peoples of all lands to look up, not with apprehension and foreboding but with reassurance and hope, secure in the knowledge that this is not another "secret weapon" but, instead, a complex and delicate instrument busily collecting data that scientists of every nation can put to work in the service of mankind to the end that life on earth will be richer and fuller for all men in all lands.

This is America's precious opportunity to demonstrate that it aspires to peace, not war; to service, not subjugation; and that the "race" we are most interested in winning is the race for the moral leadership of the world.

Ethics in International Relations

G. W. Thumm

MAN has long tried to determine the principles underlying the conduct of international relations, and from them to discover how the course of world affairs may be turned toward peace and human welfare rather than toward catastrophe. If his efforts are to succeed, he must give greater attention to the role of *ethics* in international relations.

The principle of the dominance of power has long marked—or marred—relations between states. The strong have been able to satisfy their desire at the expense of the weak. The weak have been impotent to resist effectively the demands of the strong. Examples have featured the history of international relations from its earliest pages. This dominance has caused the development of a school of theorists of international relations who proclaim—even when they neither advocate nor condone—the omnipotence and omniscience of national power in the field of international politics.

Usually coupled with this genuflection before the principle of the dominance of power is a rejection of all criteria in evaluating national policy other than its success in serving the self-interest of the state. This attitude is usually known as Machiavellianism. Its adherents start with the premise that the primary function of the state is to provide for the security and welfare of its citizens. This premise is generally acceptable; few will question its validity. Few also will deny that the success of a policy must be measured *primarily* in terms of its objectives. But the Machiavellians reject *all* other criteria and argue that *any* policy of the nation-state is desirable if it promotes a desirable end.

These emphases on the dominance of power in determining international relations and the irrel-

evance of criteria other than national self-interest in determining foreign policy, combine to produce the amoral type of foreign policy "realism" commonly known as "*Realpolitik*."

THE INADEQUACY OF REALPOLITIK

Although its advocates present it as logically irrefutable, the philosophy of *Realpolitik* fails adequately to explain international relations. Actually, it is a gross oversimplification. It is invalid because it ignores other factors which a full explanation must take into account.

According to the assumptions of *Realpolitik*, there is no reason why a powerful state should not do anything it pleases to secure advantages at the expense of a weaker neighbor. Its only limitation is the value of its anticipated gain. There will be times when the stronger state may be restrained by the operation of the balance of power; other powerful states may not permit significant changes adverse to their own power positions. This limitation is, of course, inherent in *Realpolitik*; it does not negate the principle.

Yet, states obstinately behave in a manner which, if based solely on the above assumptions, can only be described as irrational. They usually refrain from pressing their superiority in power to the fullest in order to secure maximum advantage for themselves. There are obviously other restraints in operation.

International law certainly serves as a restraint on the abuse of national power. Despite occasional glaring and spectacular breaches, the nations usually observe it—even when it cannot conceivably be enforced against them. Why? And, granted that states sometimes violate their pledged word in order to secure some advantage, why should a sovereign state *ever* forego an advantage for itself in order to fulfill its promises? Eventually the use of sanctions by the international community may provide enforcement, but, at the present time, not only the use of sanctions but the international community itself is in its infancy. In the absence of effective international sanctions, the restraints of international law are due primarily to non-legal factors.

Some have attempted to explain this phenomenon as a manifestation of "enlightened self-

"The only real restraint upon a nation's abuse of its power position is the ethical code of its people and the institutions through which they are made effective," the author writes. Dr. Thumm is an Assistant Professor of Political Science in the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce of the University of Pennsylvania.

interest." This doctrine holds that statesmen will avoid breaking international law today, when it is in their country's interest to break it, hoping to preserve it against the day when it may serve their interest against another state. Pushed to its extreme, this doctrine could be made to explain anything. In practice, however, it, too, is inadequate. The eventual unfavorable consequences which are assumed to result from an immediately profitable violation are too frequently so remote as to threaten no real sanction to the most far-sighted statesman.

It is to ethics that we must turn for an explanation of the self-abnegation of states. Ethics supplements and reinforces other restraints upon a state's use of its power. It does so in two ways. First, the acceptance of ethical codes by the people of a state limit the freedom of the state's leaders to use the power at their disposal. Second, ethics provides a foundation for the development of law, and a sanction for its enforcement.

ETHICS LIMITS THE LEADERS OF THE STATE

The ethical concepts accepted by the citizens of a state place definite limitations on its leaders in their use of political power. This is as true in the international as in the domestic field. The ideals of the people are vital factors in forming public opinion; it in turn, controls the leaders. Whatever the desires of the leaders of the state (and their ideals tend to be similar to those of their followers), public opinion will not long permit them to carry out policies which violate its ideas of right and wrong. The leaders may temporarily control it through propaganda and censorship. However, in democratic states those tools of the government are never more than factors in the formation of public opinion. Even in totalitarian states, with their rigid controls imposed by their governments, they are not completely effective: Witness the ferment within the Soviet orbit after years of their use. There are a few areas of governmental policy which by their nature afford few non-governmental sources of information; in those areas, the leaders may very considerably influence public opinion. In most, however, their effect is only fragmentary. Leaders of democratic governments, therefore, must constantly take into account the effect their actions will have on public opinion. And the preoccupation of totalitarian leaders with its control indicates that they, too, are sensitive to its effects.

The behavior of the United States after its "foreign" wars offers excellent demonstrations of the limitations imposed on political action by

popularly held ethical beliefs. United States public opinion readily accepted the view that areas adjacent to the country's borders and suitable for settlement by Americans "should" be annexed. This was our "Manifest Destiny." On the other hand, it objected to the acquisition of "colonies," for Americans regarded "colonialism" as "wrong." The United States could have annexed Cuba and the Philippines after the Spanish-American War—as easily as it had annexed California and the Southwest after the Mexican War. The United States could have demanded, and received, colonies after World War I and after World War II. But Americans felt that to assume control over an alien population without its consent would be "wrong."

The United States did assume control after World War II of a number of Pacific Islands formerly ruled by Japan. The rationalization by which the demands of the United States Navy for control in the interests of national security were reconciled with the basic American ethos was in itself instructive. It was done only on two grounds: first, the territory consisted of widely scattered small islands hardly suited for the creation of an independent state or states, and, second, the islands technically were not annexed to the United States, but were placed under a United Nations Trusteeship (of however novel a type). This reasoning served to appease public opinion. Had the American public been more keenly aware of the conflict between its traditional views on "colonialism" and its government's objectives in the Pacific Islands, the Navy might have been forced to abandon its claims.

Recent British history also demonstrates this point. When the government headed by Prime Minister Sir Anthony Eden joined the French in attempting to seize the Suez Canal following its nationalization by Egypt, it incurred very serious domestic criticism in press and Parliament. This division at home drastically weakened the government when it had to face the opposition of the United States, the Soviet Union, and of the smaller nations expressed through the United Nations. Had Britain been united, the government could conceivably have continued in its policy and sought to ride out the storm. With the majority of the Commonwealth opposed and the United Kingdom itself divided, the government could not proceed.

Totalitarian states seek to circumvent the limitations placed on their behavior by ethical concepts through the replacement of one ethical system by another. The Soviet State seeks to

replace an ethos which preaches that man should love his enemy with one which preaches that enemies of the proletariat must be destroyed. It seeks to replace an ethical code which requires ends to be sought only by means consonant with the dignity of man and the "rights" of individuals with one which states that a worthy end justifies any effective means of achieving it. Leaders of the Nazi State, finding Christian doctrines in complete contradiction to its racist policies, sought to replace them by resurrecting the ancient Teutonic faith and impregnating it with modern nationalistic concepts.

These totalitarian systems tried to prevent the formation of a public opinion adverse to their policies by eliminating the ethical and religious foundations on which such a hostile opinion could be based. They sought to use censorship and propaganda to change the ethical concepts of the people rather than to reconcile governmental policies with those concepts. They sought to create a new ethos which would sanction the policies they had determined to execute.

ETHICS AND INTERNATIONAL LAW

Ethics provides a foundation for the development of international law. International law prescribes a code of conduct by which states may regulate their relations with one another. It does not necessarily, however, prescribe a "moral" code. Conceivably, the community of nations could formulate and enforce a set of laws in direct violation of our presently accepted standards of "right" and "justice." Conceivably, the principle that "might makes right" could be accepted as the standard code of conduct for civilized states. But it has not been so accepted.

Instead, law has generally followed, rather than violated, moral principles. This cannot be accounted for merely by the self-interest of the states concerned. Rather, it is because the peoples of those states have accepted systems of personal ethics and conduct. These are usually religious in origin. Once the people of a country accept certain ethical concepts as standards by which they measure the conduct of individuals, they can easily project them as standards by which they may measure the conduct of states. When Macaulay described the War of the Austrian Succession as being fought "in order that Frederic might rob a neighbor whom he had promised to defend," he was applying to the behavior of states those rules of *personal* morality which forbid robbery and lying.

A cursory study of the history of international

relations may give the impression that moral standards are not applied to the conduct of states. Certainly, morality has been often flouted; the term "Machiavellian," is an epithet of opprobrium too often deserved. But equally significant is the fact that it is an epithet of opprobrium—it represents deplorable conduct. International law has incorporated *approved* codes of conduct—codes in harmony with accepted ethical standards.

LIMITATIONS ON THE ROLE OF ETHICS

But if it is true that moral standards are applied to the conduct of states, it is equally true that in the field of international affairs man has strayed far from the path laid down by the Judeo-Christian ethos. Whether the conduct of international relations is more or less ethical today than it was two centuries ago is highly debatable. Many advances have been made. The violations of the Sermon on the Mount as applied to "backward," "colonial," or "dependent" peoples have been less frequent and less glaring than formerly. The great powers have displayed greater forbearance in their dealings with their less powerful neighbors than formerly. International cooperation to improve the health and well-being of mankind has increased in many lines of activity. But the arguments are not all on one side. Particularly in the field of the conduct of wars, hot and cold, nations have behaved with far greater ruthlessness than would have been tolerated among "civilized" states two hundred years ago. Even here, however, the conduct of modern states compares favorably with that of states farther back in history, or with that of states in the less "civilized" areas of the world today.

Several factors contribute to limiting ethical influences in international relations. Among them are (a) the individual's lack of a feeling of personal responsibility for the acts of his state; (b) the development of powerful states which reject the traditional western ethos; and (c) the tendency of states to reduce their observance of their ethical principles to the lowest common denominator.

The individual often finds it difficult to realize he is himself responsible for the behavior of his state. The Nuremberg Trials of German war criminals following World War II revealed that even those who actually determined the policy of the state frequently felt absolutely no personal responsibility for it. If it is difficult for a leader to feel responsible for a decision in which he participated, it is incomparably more difficult for the "man in the street" to feel responsible for

decisions apparently made in his state's capital. Yet, the ethics of the state are merely the ethics of its citizens; the citizens can exert tremendous pressure on the leaders if they try. This lack of a feeling of individual responsibility poses a threat to the survival of ethics in international relations which can only be defeated by carefully inculcating a realization of the nature and extent of personal responsibility. This is difficult, but not impossible.

A second factor tending toward decreased importance of ethics as a limitation on national power is the development of powerful new states rejecting the traditional western ethos. A century ago, all the major world powers accepted the western tradition, the ethical content of which was largely derived from the teachings of the Hebrew prophets, amplified and emphasized by Christianity and transmitted through the medieval church. Since that time, three major states have arisen which, to varying degrees, adhere to quite different systems: China, India, and Japan. In addition, the rise of the twin religions of communism and nationalism have produced in formerly "christian" states ethical systems radically opposed to the western ethos. Soviet Russia, Nazi Germany, and—to a lesser extent—Fascist Italy proclaimed systems of values including the doctrine that an assumed laudable end justifies any means of attaining it. The influence of traditional ethics on a large part of the field of international relations was thus sharply reduced.

The effect of this factor, fortunately, has been modified by similarities to and partial acceptance of the traditional ethos, and it can be further reduced by an increased flow of ideas. An infusion of ideas drawn from British political thought and western ethics has greatly affected the native Indian concepts. Western ethical influences are also felt, although less pervasively, in Japan and to a limited extent in China. And the most strenuous efforts of nationalism and communism failed to eradicate completely the influence of the Judeo-Christian ethos from those states which fell under their domination.

A third factor accelerates the reduction of the traditional ethos due to the rise of competing systems of thought; it would operate even within the same system. This is the tendency of states to observe that code of behavior which represents the lowest common denominator. There is a kind of Gresham's Law, in accordance with which bad conduct drives out good. A state accepting the highest principles as its code of conduct finds itself handicapped in dealing with

a less scrupulous state. To respect the amenities of civilized life, to honor one's word, to observe one's treaties, frequently seem to place a state at a distinct disadvantage when dealing with a state which does none of these things. The former soon feels that, in order to survive, it must adopt the ethical code of its enemy. From that position it is only a step to *anticipating* the unethical behavior of the enemy, and adopting the anticipated enemy code of conduct as its own.

Reinforcing this effect is the "crusade psychology" characteristic of modern international relations. In part, this, too, results from the development of radically different value systems. The individual citizen feels that he is fighting to defend all that is right and holy and is opposed by all that is wrong and unholy. In such a conflict, he finds it very difficult to apply the same standards of ethics he would apply to a less sacred struggle. He is not merely defending his life, his home, or his country; he is defending Western civilization, or democracy, or Christianity, or Islam, or the Revolution. To achieve such a holy end no evil is too repellent.

This frame of mind may be required by total war. Certainly, it is developed by governments and by private groups. To the extent that their campaign is successful, public opinion in their states will increasingly press its leaders for even more violations of previously accepted codes of conduct rather than demand their observance.

CONCLUSIONS

In the final analysis, the only real restraint upon a nation's abuse of its power position is the ethical code of its people and the institutions through which they are made effective. International legal or institutional restraints may be valuable, but they rest ultimately upon the desire of the people to see them applied.

Our efforts to improve international conduct must, therefore, include two lines of action: *First*, we must seek to eliminate barriers to public information and to the free flow of ideas. Only in this way can the standards of the Judeo-Christian ethos be applied to the broad area of international relations. Public opinion cannot condemn evils of which it is ignorant, nor can it support values of which it is unaware. *Second*, we must promote among the peoples of the world greater acceptance of and insistence upon the high standards of national conduct prescribed by that ethos. On their ability to resist pressures toward unethical conduct in international relations may depend the survival of civilization.

Science and The Liberal Arts

Willard J. Gambold

SOME years ago, while returning by train from a meeting in New York, I struck up a conversation with a fellow passenger seated across the aisle. Eventually she got around to discussing her son's education and aspirations.

"What's his aim?" I asked.

"He wants to be a nuclear physicist," she replied.

That was over ten years ago, shortly after the first A-bomb had been released.

I have no idea where the young man is today. He may be a graduate scientist, working at Oak Ridge, Tennessee, or at a government nuclear test center. Perhaps he went down some other vocational path. But if he were 14 now, the chances are that he would be urged—by advisers, both parental and professional—that the prospects for scientists and engineers were never better and are growing brighter all the time.

Engineering has captured the imagination of the public. For about three years now, much has been said and written about the shortage of engineers. The deficiency is real. Pick up any city newspaper and examine the classified ad section. Each Sunday the large metropolitan papers carry from eight to 10 pages of advertisements seeking engineers and scientists. Starting salaries for beginners are good. Opportunities for advancement are plentiful.

The young graduate of a technical institution is a much sought after individual. On the day he finishes college he may be forced to make a choice among the fat salaries offered him by dozens of corporations. Even without experience he can command up to \$500 a month.

"We don't screen them anymore; they screen us," one corporation recruiter said, in commenting on the intensified hunt for educated talent.

This newly found independence was well illustrated by a recent cartoon in the *New Yorker* magazine. Depicted was a rather harassed, bel-

ligerent-looking father talking to a cocksure youth: "Ten thousand dollars a year at du Pont or not," he said, "I'm still your old man."

The 30,000 engineers graduating annually from our colleges and universities are not enough to keep abreast of the present demand. According to reliable sources, 40,000 more are needed immediately. Lewis L. Strauss has said that the nation must double its supply of scientists and engineers if it is to keep pace with Russia and retain its technical superiority.

We cannot quarrel with Mr. Strauss' estimate of an emergency. Probably it is deeper and more profound than most of us realize.

Equally alarming, however, is the prospect of having our best talent siphoned off into scientific and technical fields.¹ Should this be done at the expense of the humanities and the liberal arts? Many thoughtful school people are now beginning to ask whether we don't also need well-educated individuals in the fine arts, the social sciences, religion, philosophy, and languages.

With so much emphasis on the sciences and engineering, there is real danger that high school graduates will be persuaded by community pressures to enter these fields, even though they are not equipped for them. In the words of a former senator from New York, Herbert Lehman, it would be extremely unwise to attempt to pressure one not so inclined into becoming a third rate engineer.

The growing number of scholarships offered to students to enter the sciences is another factor promoting imbalance. One eastern state last year inaugurated a new scholarship program. Five hundred scholarships of \$500 each were offered to high school graduates who planned to enter the science or engineering fields.

Will this inducement attract some pupils who are not really interested in the sciences but will accept the money because they need it to go to college? Will the end result be desirable? Why not offer special scholarships to students who want to enter the humanities or the liberal arts?

The director of Indianapolis at Work, a program designed to acquaint young people with the business life in their community, here expresses concern over the growing emphasis on science and engineering.

¹ The appearance of the Russian satellites after this article was written has given new urgency to the author's warning.—Editor

Fellowships and scholarships granted to secondary and junior high school teachers are likewise out of balance, a disproportionate share being awarded for study in the scientific fields.

For the long pull, the question is where the emphasis should be placed in the educational program. This points up a major problem. It is not really a matter of pitting one program against another—of lining the natural and physical sciences up against the humanities. It is rather that some school leaders are beginning to wonder if we may be going too far in putting all our eggs in the engineering basket.

The danger that we may go "overboard" on science emphasizes our penchant for fads in education, our inclination for fashions in training. The youngster who is trained as a narrow specialist, in the belief that there will always be a demand for his specialty, may be in for a nasty jolt. Our world changes so rapidly that no one can promise that today's specialty will be needed tomorrow.

To be safe, a man should have professional training that is broad and flexible enough so that he can survive the ups and down of life. Such breadth and flexibility should include more stress on and more attention to the liberal arts.

Not all the world's problems can be resolved by technically trained men, or by scientific techniques. Men educated in the liberal arts and the humanities will be needed as well. Already some scientific firms are turning to liberal arts graduates for their management problems. The same is true in sales, where employers are taking liberal arts men without technical backgrounds.

Manufacturing companies, as well as retailing and financial institutions, all should benefit from an increased use of high-potential liberal arts graduates. But if we attempt to channel the best brains into the sciences, and slight the humanities and the liberal arts, our nation and the entire world will suffer in the long run.

Dr. Earl J. McGrath, former United States Commissioner of Education and now director of the Institute of Higher Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, has taken a strong stand against oversteering one field at the expense of another.

"I'm opposed to any scholarship program," he said, "which has the effect of coercing students into the scientific or engineering fields."

Of course, he continued, he favored the growth of the physical sciences. But he stressed that this should be a "natural" growth and not one artificially brought about through lures such as

scholarships, higher wages or public pressures. Actually we need a fuller supply today of trained youth in all the disciplines. To say that Russia is turning out more scientists than we are puts the whole proposition on a sort of educational treadmill. No doubt our survival does depend partly on adequately trained scientists. But life following survival demands a community of balanced skills and interests.

Our strength lies in the freedom of choices that we give our scholars and teachers. In the years ahead our nation will need the advice and leadership of clear-thinking men and women who can make intelligent decisions. The liberal arts and humanities can give them greater depth, clearer vision and wider understanding of many of the pressing problems in today's world.

Consciously or unconsciously, steering so many of our gifted pupils into scientific training tends to build up the idea of an elite group. There is real danger lest the swing toward the technical fields might make the liberal arts majors feel slightly inferior.

Unfortunately some faculty members as well as pupils fall under the same spell. Teachers in the non-scientific fields—in the liberal arts particularly—often tend to be less aggressive, less positive in expressing themselves than their scientific colleagues. And with all the current emphasis on science, there lurks the fear that those who teach history and related subjects will end up as "poor relations" in the faculty family.

This calls for a positive approach rather than an attitude of irritation and defeatism. Constantly, there arise opportunities to speak up in order to help maintain some sort of educational equilibrium. Both in the intimacy of private conversations and on the forum of public discussions teachers must be ready to state the case for the humanities and the liberal arts.

Actually there should be no gulf between science and engineering on the one hand and the liberal arts on the other. Scientists could profit from the broad approach of history, literature, the fine arts. Conversely, it wouldn't hurt those in the humanities to become better acquainted with the latest in technical developments.

Today, much is made of the phrase, "togetherness." Truly we are all in this problem of education together. Every segment of teaching in America has the prime objective of preserving and improving our democratic form of government. And as Winston Churchill once said: "Democracy is the worst form of government, except for all the others which have been tried."

Japanese-American Relations

Takashi Mori

FOREWORD BY NELDA DAVIS

Perhaps there is no more important problem than the one of understanding other peoples of the world. In fact, there are few situations making the international headlines today that do not have this problem in the background. Among the more successful attempts that have been made in meeting this issue is that of personal contacts between the peoples of the nations involved.

During the summer of 1956 an International Workshop on Human Relations in the Pacific Area was sponsored jointly by the University of California at Los Angeles and the National Conference of Christians and Jews. Individuals from Japan, Korea, India, the Philippines, Mexico, Canada, Hawaii, and the mainland of the United States lived together for a period of six weeks. Since each one was definitely an individual, stereotypes that had previously been in the minds of the participants were replaced by entirely different pictures.

There was a middle-aged economics professor from Japan who was needlessly timid about speaking English; a Filipino girl who remembered too well the Japanese occupation of her land; a person, Korean by birth and American by naturalization, who spoke for both lands; a Japanese YMCA worker who combined the characteristics of idealist and Peck's bad boy; an Indian who gave us added faith in his country; a family of American Indians—artist father, teacher mother, and law student son—who spoke eloquently for the understanding of those Americans; two educators from Mexico who were dedicated to their work; a young Canadian who was learning to reconcile the world of her expectation with the one of reality; and persons from the United States whose backgrounds and beliefs were as varied as those of the Asians. But the one in the workshop who, perhaps, could speak to all social studies teachers was a young man from Japan. He is on the clerical staff of Sanwa Bank, Ltd. of Osaka, Japan, and also an organizer of a bank clerk's union in that same city.

Mr. Takashi Mori was just completing a year in the United States on a Fulbright exchange scholarship and was returning to Japan at the close of the workshop. His name for himself was "the noisy guy" and, while at times there was complete agreement with his choice of names, more frequently "the honest guy" would have been more fitting. Social studies teachers both need and desire to know all sides of a question; for that reason the following paper, giving the viewpoints of Mr. Mori on the relations between Japan and the United States, is presented.

TODAY I am very glad to express my opinion of Japanese-American relations. This is the opinion which has been formed in my mind during my stay in the United States. Perhaps I should start back in 1941. As you remember, Japan was the enemy of the United States. Then the Japanese people were saying "Destroy America, the enemy of the world," and on the other hand the American people were saying, "Remember Pearl Harbor." We had bitter fighting for almost four years. But the end of the Pacific War changed both Japan and the United States. The American Occupation for more than five years caused my country to become Americanized to a certain extent. It should be truly recognized that most of the Japanese people appreciated the American occupation policy which tried to modernize Japan in order to make it a nation of the free world.

But a very unfortunate incident happened during these past six years—the outbreak of the Korean War. Because of the emergency situation in Asia, the American policy toward Japan was suddenly changed and Japan was required to rearm and to become the bulwark against possible aggression of the communist nations. Yet the American-made new constitution of Japan renounced war and prohibited Japan from keeping any type of war potential. This situation has become very helpful to communist party activity in Japan.

Frankly speaking, to a certain extent, I, too, have been critical of United States foreign policy toward Japan. Not only I but also many of the young people of Japan have felt critical of American overemphasis on the military problem.

As I mentioned before, after the Second World War and until the outbreak of the Korean War,

the Japanese people had been mostly pro-American. They evaluated American ways as a wonderful means of raising our people's living standards and keeping Japan a peace-loving and neutral nation like Switzerland. And this was also the policy of the Supreme Commander of the Allied Power at the early stage of occupation. General Douglas MacArthur imposed the world-famous peaceful constitution of New Japan and tried to make Japan a Switzerland in Asia. This was one of the American foreign policies which was appreciated by the Japanese people. But then, later on, the United States, which had imposed this no-war constitution, was obliged to force Japan to rearm, and this was done without the abolition of the no-war clause. This is actually an unconstitutional practice. Do you think that this policy is good for the New Japan which wants to be democratic and peace-loving? I think that it is one of the big factors which will threaten Japanese-American relations.

One of my purposes in coming to the United States was to find a way for Japan and America to become more friendly and to help each other in order to establish world peace. As you well know, Japan is the most industrialized and modernized country in Asia, and Japan's role in Asian affairs must be considered. I believe that the United States will not be able to develop its foreign-policy toward Asia without consideration of the existence, independence, and development of Japan. With this kind of attitude on the part of the United States, Japan can be a mediator for the Free World.

According to my observation in the United States, I have found several facts that will benefit Japanese-American relations.

First, there are many Japanese scholars in the United States studying and doing research in American academic institutions. Some of them are learning from the United States and some of them are helping to raise the academic level of the United States. I also found that there are some universities which are providing research centers for the understanding of the Japanese language and affairs. Actually, I found several students who have not been in Japan speaking and reading Japanese. This may be a good sign that there are many people in the United States working for understanding between the two nations. I have found in American journals several articles which bring hope for the betterment of the relations between the two nations. These are the facts on the optimistic side, but we should look at the pessimistic side also.

There seem to be many people in the United States who are very ignorant about other countries. These are sometimes university people. I am not complaining about their ignorance, but I am telling you my impression. In fact I have received many questions about my country which show almost complete ignorance about Japan. Don't you think that this kind of ignorance about foreign countries endangers the foreign relations of the United States? The answer is definitely "yes."

But I have to tell you a more important point which will endanger Japanese-American relations. Most of the American people believe that the United States is the best country in the world, and therefore American ways and standards must be the best for all countries. Of course, I recognize the merits of American ways to a certain extent, but it is very obvious that the standards of one country are not necessarily applicable to another country, and this concept should never be forgotten in terms of foreign relations. Therefore, I say that the American ways may be good for the American people, but they are not always good for the Japanese people and sometimes are against the cultural or historical background of the Japanese. In this connection, I sincerely recommend that the people of the United States study foreign affairs more carefully. And I believe that such careful attention to foreign affairs will greatly affect American foreign policy. And, furthermore, I believe that the American people are capable of this difficult job.

I believe that future Japanese-American relations will be improved by the hands of those American people who give attention to Japanese affairs, and by the hands of Japanese people who know what America is. In closing, I should say that it is the natural and inevitable destiny of Japan to cooperate with the United States, a leading nation of the free world. Japan's very existence will be denied if there are no good relations between the two nations. That is why the Japanese young people are so sensitive to these problems. Most of them are very suspicious of communist nations and their policies, although they have a different opinion of the communist nations from the Americans. We Japanese are expecting fair and fine play from the United States, and also independent-mindedness on the part of the Japanese Government which has caused anti-American feeling in Japan with its "Yes-Man" attitude in Washington.

I would like to end with a phrase: "Japan is Japan, nothing else but Japan."

Recent Supreme Court Decisions: Academic Freedom

Isidore Starr

THE subject of academic freedom is as old as the teacher and the scholar. Socrates, Grotius, and Galileo are names written large in its history. In our own country the religious issue in colonial times, the slavery question in the ante-bellum days, and the evolution trial of 1926 prove the persistence of this theme in a society which cherishes freedom. Today we are once again experiencing a climate of opinion which is measuring the scope of academic liberty against the requirements of a community concerned with self-protection.

The numerous definitions of academic freedom seem to synthesize a number of basic elements.¹ There must be the pursuit of independent thought for the sake of acquiring that information, knowledge, and wisdom which lights up the truth. There must be freedom to investigate unpopular ideas and to question the status quo. And finally, there must be freedom from any restrictions and interferences by forces outside the scholar or teacher.

But academic freedom involves academic responsibility. Teacher and scholar must be true to the generally accepted standards of their discipline and profession. As citizens, they must conduct themselves in accordance with the standards associated with good citizenship. They certainly cannot engage in any conspiracy against the very society which grants them academic freedom.

An inevitable by-product of free intellectual inquiry is the emergence of the non-conformist

or the holder of heretical ideas. This has always raised a number of practical political questions: What limits may a free society impose on its teachers and scholars? How much intellectual freedom can a democratic society afford in an era of international tension? When does academic dissent become political disloyalty and subversion?

The proliferation of books, articles,² and pamphlets³ attest to the fact that the subject is intensely interesting and intellectually stimulating at this time. The numerous analyses and generalizations which we find propounded in these publications are valuable and illuminating. But the real test of academic freedom does not rest in glittering generalizations; it is rooted in the individual case. It is for this reason that the Supreme Court ruling in *Sweezy v. New Hampshire, By Wyman, Attorney General*, 354 U.S. 234 (1957), is of particular significance to all who are intrigued by attempts to delineate the nature and scope of academic freedom.

¹ Richard Hofstadter and Walter P. Metzger, *The Development of Academic Freedom in the United States*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955; Robert MacIver, *Academic Freedom in Our Time*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955; Robert E. Cushman, *Civil Liberties in the United States*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1956, Chapter II; Russell Kirk, *Academic Freedom: An Essay in Definition*. Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1955; E. Merrill Root, *Collectivism on the Campus*. New York: Devin-Adair Company, 1955. The latter two books present a point of view completely different from that developed in the first three volumes.

² Two articles of especial interest are "The Climate of Opinion and the State of Academic Freedom," a report on a study sponsored by the Eastern Sociological Society, *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 21, No. 3, June 1956; "The Threat to Academic Freedom" by Dr. Journet Kahn of the University of Notre Dame, an article reprinted from the Proceedings of the American Catholic Philosophical Association, Catholic University of America, and distributed by the Fund for the Republic.

³ The American Civil Liberties Union has published three pamphlets on this subject: *Academic Freedom and Academic Responsibility*, *Academic Due Process*, and *Academic Freedom and Civil Liberties of Students*.

"The *Sweezy* case will unquestionably go down in our judicial history as one of the most eloquent defenses of academic freedom in general, and of the significant role of the social scientist in particular," the author observes in the concluding paragraphs of this review. Dr. Starr, a social studies teacher in Brooklyn Technical High School, is chairman of the NCSS Committee on Academic Freedom and a member of the NCSS Board of Directors.

THE FACTS IN THE CASE

In 1951 the New Hampshire state legislature enacted a statute designed to control subversive activities. Two years later a second law empowered the Attorney-General to act as a one-man legislative committee to carry out the law. One of his tasks was to determine whether there were subversive persons within the state.

On two occasions in 1954 the Attorney General summoned Paul M. Sweezy to appear before him. On each occasion Sweezy was questioned as to his past conduct and associations. He answered most of the questions and denied membership in the Communist Party. However, he declined to answer any questions concerning his ideas, beliefs, and associations which were not, in his opinion, pertinent to the matter under inquiry and which seemed to invade his rights under the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. During the course of the questioning, Sweezy described himself as a "classical Marxist" and a "socialist." He refused, however, to answer questions concerning his and his wife's connection with the Progressive Party.⁴

Apparently, one of the reasons, if not the major reason, for the questioning of Sweezy was the fact that he had been a guest lecturer at the University of New Hampshire. On May 22, 1954, Sweezy had delivered a lecture to a class of 100 students in the humanities course. This talk had been given at the express invitation of the faculty teaching the course. It was the third time in three years that this invitation had been extended and accepted. When the Attorney General questioned him about his lectures, he refused to answer the following questions:

"What was the subject of your lecture?"

"Didn't you tell the class at the University of New Hampshire on Monday, March 22, 1954, that Socialism was inevitable in this country?"

"Did you advocate Marxism at that time?"

"Did you express the opinion, or did you make the statement at that time that Socialism was inevitable in America?"

"Did you in this last lecture on March 22 or in any of the former lectures espouse the theory of dialectical materialism?"

When asked whether he believed in communism, he refused to answer, although he had already testified that he had never been a member of the Communist Party. He continued to

refuse to answer any questions relating to his association with the Progressive Party. His reason, was based on two grounds: the questions were not pertinent to the investigation, and the probings into opinions and beliefs violated the First Amendment, which has been incorporated by judicial interpretation into the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Upon the Attorney General's request, the state Superior Court propounded the same questions. The refusal to answer was met with conviction for contempt and commitment to the county jail. Released on bond, Sweezy took the judicial path to our high court. The state courts upheld the investigation of the university lectures on the ground that what he taught was relevant to his character as a teacher and, therefore, necessary to determine whether he was a "subversive" person.

THE MAJORITY OPINION

Chief Justice Warren delivered the majority opinion, joined in by Justices Black, Brennan, and Douglas. He began by stressing the fact that "legislative investigations, whether on a federal or state level, are capable of encroaching upon the constitutional liberties of individuals." He went on to say that when a witness is required to testify, the Court must make sure that the investigative process shows due respect for "such highly sensitive areas as freedom of speech or press, freedom of political association, and freedom of communication of ideas particularly in the academic community."

According to the majority, there are several conditions that raise serious doubts as to whether the state legislature took the necessary precautions to place limits on the investigation consonant with the due process requirements of respect for the individual's rights. In the first place, the New Hampshire Subversive Activities Act of 1951 defines as a "subversive person" anyone who aids in the commission of any act intended to assist in the alteration of the constitutional form of government by force or violence. Under this definition, a person can be labeled a "subversive" even if he has no knowledge of the unlawful nature of his activity. In addition, states the Court, this definition is so vague and its potential sweep is so great that it encompasses "the assistant of an assistant."

Chief Justice Warren then turns to the general subject of academic freedom. Since "the sole basis for the inquiry was to scrutinize the teacher as a person," then the inquiry must stand or fall on that issue alone. There was, he declares, no

⁴ The Progressive Party ran Henry A. Wallace (former Vice President of the U. S.) for President and Glen Taylor (former U.S. Senator) for Vice President in the election of 1948.

justification for the invasion of Sweezy's right to academic freedom or political association.

Merely to summon a witness and compel him, against his will, to disclose the nature of his past expressions and associations is a measure of governmental interference in these matters. These are rights which are safeguarded by the Bill of Rights and the Fourteenth Amendment. We believe that there unquestionably was an invasion of petitioner's liberties in the areas of academic freedom and political expression—areas in which government should be extremely reticent to tread.

The Court defends academic freedom in these words:

The essentiality of freedom in the community of American universities is almost self-evident. No one should underestimate the vital role in a democracy that is played by those who guide and train our youth. To impose any strait jacket upon the intellectual leaders in our colleges and universities would imperil the future of our Nation. No field of education is so thoroughly comprehended by man that new discoveries cannot yet be made. Particularly is that true in the social sciences, where few if any, principles are accepted as absolutes. Scholarship cannot flourish in an atmosphere of suspicion and distrust. Teachers and students must always remain free to inquire, to study and to evaluate, to gain new maturity and understanding; otherwise our civilization will stagnate and die.

Chief Justice Warren then goes on to defend the right to political freedom:

Equally manifest as a fundamental principle of a democratic society is political freedom of the individual. Our form of government is built on the premise that every citizen shall have the right to engage in political expression and association. This right was enshrined in the First Amendment of the Bill of Rights. Exercise of these basic freedoms in America has traditionally been through the media of political associations. Any interference with the freedom of a party is simultaneously an interference with the freedom of its adherents. All political ideas cannot and should not be channeled into the programs of our two major parties. History has amply proved the virtue of political activity by minority, dissident groups, who innumerable times have been in the vanguard of democratic thought and whose programs were ultimately accepted. Mere unorthodoxy or dissent from the prevailing mores is not to be condemned. The absence of such voices would be a symptom of grave illness in our society.

The majority opinion then proceeds to raise the last objection to the actions of New Hampshire. There must be compelling reasons for an inquiry into a man's beliefs and associations. What do we find in this case? The state legislature has given the Attorney General broad discretion "to screen the citizenry of New Hampshire to bring to light anyone who fits into the expansive definitions "of subversive persons or organizations. But it is the legislature which has the duty of circumscribing the nature and scope of an investigation so that it is clear to everyone that the information sought is directly related

to the interests of the state. In this case we find the state's power to investigate separated from the responsibility to use that power in a manner consonant with the constitutional rights of individuals. By delegating its general power to investigate to the one-man committee, the legislature gave the Attorney General "such a sweeping and uncertain mandate that it is his decision which picks out the subjects that will be pursued, what witnesses will be summoned and what questions will be asked." This cannot be defended constitutionally because it evades the requirement of limits to inquiry.

Within the very broad area thus committed to the discretion of the Attorney General there may be many facts which the legislature might find useful. There would also be a great deal of data which that assembly would not want or need. In the classes of information that the legislature might deem it desirable to have, there will be some which it could not validly acquire because of the effect upon the constitutional rights of individual citizens. Separating the wheat from the chaff, from the standpoint of the legislature's object, is the legislature's responsibility because it alone can make that judgment. In this case, the New Hampshire legislature has delegated that task to the Attorney General.

THE CONCURRING OPINION

Justice Frankfurter's concurring opinion, joined in by Justice Harlan, comes to the point of academic freedom quickly and directly. Granting that the Attorney General's questions were relevant and appropriate in accordance with the instructions of the legislature, the issue resolves itself into one of academic freedom versus the state's power to investigate subversive activities. Justice Frankfurter emphasizes that Sweezy has sworn that at no time did he ever advocate the overthrow of our Government by force and violence. He also observes that Sweezy answered most of the questions.

Was the Attorney-General justified in his questions about the teacher's lecture? Justice Frankfurter answers as follows:

When weighed against the grave harm resulting from governmental intrusion into the intellectual life of a university, such justification for compelling a witness to discuss the contents of his lecture appears grossly inadequate. Particularly is this so where the witness has sworn that neither in the lecture nor at any other time did he ever advocate overthrowing the Government by force and violence.

Agreeing with the Chief Justice and the majority in their respect for the contributions which may emerge from the "unfettered" social sciences, Justice Frankfurter reminds us:

Progress in the natural sciences is not remotely confined to findings made in the laboratory. Insights into the mysteries of nature are born of hypothesis and specula-

tion. The more so is this true in the pursuit of understanding in the groping endeavors of what are called the social sciences, the concern of which is man and society. The problems that are the respective preoccupations of anthropology, economics, law, psychology, sociology and related areas of scholarship are merely departmentalized dealing, by the way of manageable division of analysis, with interpenetrating aspects of holistic perplexities. For society's good—if understanding be an essential need of society—inquiries into these problems, speculations about them, stimulation in others of reflection upon them, must be left as unfettered as possible. Political power must abstain from intrusion into this activity of freedom, pursued in the interest of wise government and the people's well-being, except for reasons that are exigent and obviously compelling.

We are reminded that if the initial inroads into the social sciences are disregarded, we take the road to "governmental intervention in the intellectual life of a university." A free society depends on free universities, states the concurring opinion, and once you tolerate political intervention, you invite a climate that "tends to check the ardor and fearlessness of scholars, qualities at once so fragile and so indispensable for fruitful academic labor."

At this point, Justice Frankfurter incorporates into his opinion one of the most moving defenses of academic freedom. Excerpted from a statement of a conference of senior scholars from two South African universities, the following words are especially significant because they represent a plea which has gone unheeded.

In a university knowledge is its own end, not merely a means to an end. A university ceases to be true to its own nature if it becomes the tool of Church or State or any sectional interest. A university is characterized by the spirit of free inquiry, its ideal being the ideal of Socrates—"to follow the argument where it leads." This implies the right to examine, question, modify or reject traditional ideas and beliefs. Dogma and hypothesis are incompatible, and the concept of an immutable doctrine is repugnant to the spirit of a university. The concern of its scholars is not merely to add and revise facts in relation to an accepted framework, but to be ever examining and modifying the framework itself. . . .

Freedom to reason and freedom for disputation on the basis of observation and experiment are the necessary conditions for the advancement of scientific knowledge. A sense of freedom is also necessary for creative work in the arts which, equally with scientific research, is the concern of the university. . . .

It is the business of a university to provide that atmosphere which is most conducive to speculation, experiment and creation. It is an atmosphere in which there prevail "the four essential freedoms" of a university—to determine for itself on academic grounds who may teach, what may be taught, how it shall be taught and who may be admitted to study.

The concurring opinion agrees with the majority that *Sweezy's* political freedom had been

invaded. There is no evidence in the record for concluding that the Progressive Party was not a political party. In view of this *Sweezy* was justified in resisting the questions about his political affiliations.

Justice Frankfurter then concludes with a frank statement of the role of the Supreme Court in deciding issues involving human rights.

To be sure, this [opinion] is a conclusion based on a judicial judgment in balancing two contending principles—the right of a citizen to political privacy, as protected by the Fourteenth Amendment, and the right of the State to self-protection. And striking the balance implies the exercise of judgment. This is the inescapable judicial task in giving substantive content, legally enforced, to the Due Process Clause, and it is a task ultimately committed to this Court. It must not be an exercise of whim or will. It must be an overriding judgment founded on something much deeper and more justifiable than personal preference. As far as it lies within human limitations, it must be an impersonal judgment. It must rest on fundamental presuppositions rooted in history to which widespread acceptance may fairly be attributed. Such a judgment must be arrived at in a spirit of humility when it counters the judgment of the State's highest court. But, in the end, judgment cannot be escaped—the judgment of this Court.

THE DISSENT

Justice Clark, joined by Justice Burton, sees no merit in the majority or the concurring opinions. His brief dissenting opinion declares that New Hampshire has the right to investigate the extent of subversive activities within the state in a manner chosen by the legislature. The law in question and the investigation under it have been upheld by the state court.

When the conflicting interests of the individual and the state clash before the court, the judge must determine whether the interest of protecting the individual's right is greater than the interest of the state in uncovering subversive activities. In this case the state was exercising its fact-finding power in a lawful manner.

The issue of academic freedom, states Justice Clark, is irrelevant here. *Sweezy* was not charged as a "Subversive" person and there was no finding that he was. Nor did the law or the investigation exclude him from a job. On this basis, there was no denial of his rights in contravention of the Fourteenth Amendment.

CONCLUSION

The *Sweezy* case will unquestionably go down in our judicial history as one of the most eloquent defenses of academic freedom in general, and of the significant role of the social scientist in particular. Although the majority ruling was

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WCOTP Discusses the Teacher Shortage

Stella Kern

THE sixth annual conference of the World Confederation of the Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP) was held in Frankfurt, Germany on August 2-9, 1957. Three hundred educators, representing teachers' organizations of 50 countries attended this meeting and considered "The Shortage of Teachers: Causes and Remedies." It was their conclusion that the most urgent educational problem in the world today is that of securing an adequate supply of properly qualified teachers.

This conclusion by the world's leading educators serves to emphasize the increasing importance of teachers and of education itself in the world community. Everywhere the drastic teacher shortage—for no country has an adequate supply—is causing forward-thinking citizens to become aware of the fact that upon the selection, training, and retention of competent teachers depends the welfare of mankind.

J. Robertson Scott expressed this thought some years ago in England when he wrote, "In hamlets I know best the standard bearers of progress, civilization, evolution, well-doing, the high life, better living, true religion—call it what you like—have been without doubt, teachers of the schools."

Proof that political leaders as well as educators are realizing the importance of education and the good teacher was had when Luther Evans, Director of UNESCO, in his speech at the opening session of the WCOTP meeting in Frankfurt said, "World peace even if achieved

for a brief period would be lost unless the teachers of the world do a better job of educating new generations." Dr. Evans went on to say that UNESCO has now come to the conclusion that the teacher is the key to the development of underprivileged countries and to better world understanding and that it was the hope of his organization to work increasingly with the voluntary teacher organizations throughout the world. He pointed out the need for an agency such as WCOTP which could integrate the activities of organizations of the teaching profession and serve as a clearing house for them in the world community.

After 30 years in which unsuccessful attempts were made to develop and establish a world organization of the teaching profession, WCOTP was organized in Copenhagen in 1952. Sir Ronald Gould of England, Secretary-General of the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales, is President of the organization. Dr. William G. Carr of Washington, D.C., Executive Secretary of the National Education Association, serves as Secretary-General. The membership comes from 41 different countries and includes 74 national organizations which, in turn, have a combined membership of three million teachers. Teachers in the United States are represented primarily through the National Education Association which has a quota of 50 delegates.

WCOTP's objective is to gather into one powerful organization leaders from every area of the teaching profession who will work together for the purpose of: (1) Fostering a conception of education directed toward the promotion of international understanding and good will; (2) Improving teaching methods, educational organization, and the academic and professional training of teachers; (3) Defending the rights and the material and moral interests of the teaching profession; and (4) Promoting closer relationships between teachers in different countries.

The Confederation brings the voluntary teachers organizations of the world together in

"The most urgent educational problem in the world today" is the growing shortage of qualified teachers, writes the author in this report on the WCOTP conference held in Germany in August 1957. Miss Kern attended the conference as a delegate from the United States. She is chairman of the Executive Board of *Social Education* and chairman of the Department of Social Studies at Waller High School in Chicago, Illinois.

a nongovernmental organization. Regional conferences provide an opportunity for the various organizations to exchange ideas and information of concern in their particular area. WCOTP cooperates with government agencies and sends representatives and observers to a number of intergovernmental conferences. Working closely with UNESCO, the UN, and other international organizations, WCOTP has planned and undertaken many new activities for the purpose of serving the teachers of Africa, Asia, and Latin America. It has published a dozen helpful reports and has collected and distributed information on the cooperation of home and school, the preparation of teachers, the status of the teaching profession and education, and the well-being of society. It has been most active in fields where there is the most vital need for teachers to be represented. WCOTP has made real progress toward becoming a voice for the teachers of the world.

Immediately preceding the Frankfurt conference, WCOTP sponsored a world-wide survey of the teacher shortage. An analysis of the replies from 37 countries, presented to the conference by Dr. L. P. Patterson of Montreal, Canada, indicated that low salaries and competition with other forms of employment are the main causes of the teacher shortage. Increased school enrollments, necessitating the employment of less qualified teachers was cited as another important factor. Many teachers feel that their profession lacks prestige in the eyes of the public and that better salaries would be a big step toward solving this problem. Although the economic problem was an important one, the survey revealed that

teachers believe that better working conditions, better selection of teachers, better professional training with emphasis on the retention of trained personnel, are also of considerable importance.

President Gould, in sounding the keynote of the conference, told the assembled delegates that "democracy cannot survive unless virtually all the people are educated and wise." The price of inadequate education is the failure of democracy. Individuals lacking in education usually fill the low-salaried jobs and have lower standards of living. If countries want a prosperous future, they must invest in it by providing the best kind of an education. Whatever plans may be developed by politicians and administrators, and however important they may be, in the final analysis, the quality of our educational program depends for the most part upon the professional competence and the intellectual, moral, and spiritual resources of the world's teachers.

"Public Support for Education" will be the theme for the 1958 meeting of WCOTP in Rome. In the summer of 1959, WCOTP will convene in Washington, D.C., when the National Education Association will serve as host. The theme of this meeting will be "Teaching Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values." During the next two years this topic will be under study by UNESCO and some of its agencies. The 1959 meeting will bring important educational leaders to Washington from many countries for the purpose of considering one of the greatest educational problems facing the world community. There is much evidence that this will prove to be an historic meeting.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM

(Continued from page 352)

based on the technicality of an invalid separation of legislative power from legislative responsibility, Chief Justice Warren's opinion contains several pertinent and revealing references to the teacher as both teacher and citizen. These comments are our clues as to why the Justices voted as they did. The concurring opinion of Justice Frankfurter, on the other hand, represents a frontal attack on unwarranted interference by political authorities into the right of freedom of intellectual inquiry and the scholarly pursuit of knowledge.

Taken together with the *Watkins* and *Jencks* cases, which will be discussed in future articles, the two *Sweezy* opinions indicate that the Warren Court will tend to place individual rights above legislative enactments and executive agreements. Although our high court has been severely criticized for taking this position at this critical period in our history, it is simply reaffirming in no uncertain terms that our individual rights must be meticulously respected by federal and state officials. In this sense, it is asserting a fundamental tenet of the American heritage.

Report on Air-Age Education

Mildred S. Danziger

NEW headlines regularly scream, "Around the world in x hours and x minutes!" (It is not safe today to state the exact number of hours or minutes because they may be reduced by tomorrow.) Too many people read such headlines, gasp, and then say, "What will they do next?" We, as educators, can't afford the luxury of sitting back and merely wondering what "they" will do next. We must face the reality of a changing world and do something tangible about preparing our youth to become active, informed citizens in a new today and a changing tomorrow.

Because our superintendent of schools, Dr. Jordan L. Larson, has for many years been deeply interested and actively engaged in air age activities and education, much progress in this area has been made in our school system here at Mount Vernon.

The first step was to stimulate on the part of elementary school teachers an interest in making the fascinating content of aviation education meaningful to boys and girls. Sample books and materials from every known source were purchased, and all available free materials were secured. All of these books and materials were made easily available to the teachers, and films dealing with various developments in the field of aviation were shown.

However, reading about airplanes and looking at pictures of them was not enough. Teachers could never be expected to teach effectively about airport facilities and actual flight experiences unless they themselves had come in closer contact with the "world of flight."

Through the cooperation of the National Air Transport Commission, Civil Aeronautics officials, and representatives at Idlewild Airport, the first Air Age Training Institute was set up with ten members of our administrative staff partici-

pating. These ten members were taken on a tour through Idlewild Airport and shown how the airport functions. Outstanding people in the field spoke to the group on various phases of aviation, and the tour was completed with a flight in a commercial airliner. Seven other members of our administrative staff participated in a second "Institute," and these preliminary ventures paved the way for an improved tour which was made available to teachers.

I was one of the fortunate teachers included in the first "Air Age Institute for Teachers," but I must confess that at the time I did not consider myself fortunate. I had little interest in aviation. I was quite content with my lot here on earth and saw no reason to take my two feet off it, but I had signed up for the tour, and there was nothing to do but to go. Although the guided tour of the airport was exciting, educational, and inspiring, I found myself praying that it would rain, snow, or do anything that would result in the cancellation of the flight that was inevitably to come at the end of the tour. My prayers were almost answered, but at the last minute the skies cleared, and we boarded the plane. When I entered the plane, fear and trepidation went with me, but the 45-minute flight succeeded in doing what no book, film, or lecture could ever have done. It gave me a firm realization and understanding of the safety and convenience of today's air travel, and it aroused in me the desire to pass this knowledge and understanding along to the boys and girls in my classroom.

Once our interest as teachers had been aroused, it remained for us to stimulate the interest of the students and the general public. To acquaint the townspeople with the progress we were making with aviation education in the schools, we chose "Air Age Education" as the theme for our annual Band Day Parade. An impressive display of the various phases of air age education was presented by the many school marchers.

With the groundwork well laid, the Elementary Citizenship Education Curriculum Committee expressed a desire to have a separate committee appointed to develop a guide or framework of suggested subject matter dealing with air age

This report comes to us from a classroom teacher at the William H. Holmes School in Mount Vernon, New York. Mrs. Danziger served as Chairman of the Elementary Air Age Curriculum Committee, whose progress in air-age education she here describes.

education that could be incorporated into the general social studies outline. Thus the Elementary Air Age Curriculum Committee was organized, consisting of one teacher from each elementary school, selected because of an expressed interest in the subject, an elementary principal, and the Director of Elementary Education. Care was taken in the selecting of teachers to be sure that all grade levels were represented.

The first responsibility of the new committee was to ascertain what was currently being taught in the area of aviation in Mount Vernon classrooms. This was done by canvassing all elementary grades in all schools and compiling the information gained into outline form. From this outline, work could be begun on the development of a curriculum for kindergarten and grades one through six. The committee realized the importance of keeping informed of the most recent books, pamphlets, movies, and other teaching aids available, and as fast as any of this material was received, it was evaluated and distributed. A central library was maintained at the Board of Education, and information centers were set up in all schools. In this way all supplementary materials, books, and pamphlets were made available to teachers.

After two years of concentrated work, the Committee completed a "Suggested Curriculum of Air Age Education in the Mount Vernon Elementary Schools." Teachers are urged to look upon the "Suggested Curriculum" as a reservoir of material, from which they can draw those ideas and activities that seem to be most appropriate for their own courses of study and daily classroom work.

With the thought that the "Suggested Curriculum" would prove much more meaningful if, before putting it to use, teachers could have an opportunity for study in the "new" field, Dr. Larson arranged for an in-service course, co-sponsored by the Civil Air Patrol, to be given in Mount Vernon. Teachers from the entire Westchester County were invited to avail themselves of this opportunity, and approximately 190 teachers attended the course which consisted of 12 two-hour sessions and a full-day tour. As a result of this careful planning and a steadily accumulating body of direct experience, the teachers of Mount Vernon have every reason to believe that they can help the boys and girls now in school to arrive at a clearer understanding and a keener appreciation of the "air age" of which they are a part.

Economic Geography for the Slow Learner

By TOM M. DAVIS

John Hay High School, Cleveland, Ohio

Any program for slow learners must take into consideration the basic weaknesses of the student. The deficiencies, if they may be called such for the purpose of this paper, which are listed below, while by no means all-inclusive, may serve as a guide in determining remedial measures and teaching procedures for almost any subject.

1. Attention span is very short.
2. Retention of isolated and uncoordinated facts is limited. (This is true of other students, but more so of slow learners.)
3. Vocabulary is poor and retarded.
4. Reading skill is on a fourth- or fifth-grade level.
5. Ability to understand directions is limited.
6. Students do not respond to "preaching" or reprimand unless it is very constructive.
7. Students are usually not well oriented or adjusted, either at home or at school, along emotional or educational lines.
8. Study habits are poor and disorganized, and the

students have little knowledge as to how to solve problems.

9. Knowledge of how to use the dictionary or other reference books is poor.
10. Students are easily discouraged if material is difficult or some achievement is not within reach.

Starting with this list of characteristics of slow learners, we developed at John Hay High School a course in Economic Geography for this group of pupils.¹ Throughout the planning stage, and later in the classroom, we kept constantly in mind the fact that slow learners, like all other individuals, differ one from another. The weaknesses, or deficiencies, of one slow learner are not necessarily the major weaknesses of the boy or girl who sits next to him, and for this reason

¹ IQ range 55 to 89 with an average IQ of 77.

our list of characteristics was useful only as a general guide.

As a first step in developing the new course, we listed two objectives, both of which the slow student could easily understand, both of which he could hope to attain: (1) To learn how men and women earned a living in the local community; (2) To learn how men and women earned a living in other communities in the United States and in other countries.

It would be difficult to reduce our objectives to any simpler terms. Some might object that we have gone too far in the interest of simplicity. Before one passes judgment on this matter, however, he should remember that in the process of examining the work life of various communities the pupils come face to face with place geography, with climate, with the ways in which natural resources help to determine what jobs are available, and with the influence of trade and transportation. In brief, even the slowest student can hardly fail to learn a great deal of what we customarily refer to as "Economic Geography."

Classroom procedures, as well as course objectives, were carefully regulated with the needs of the slow student in mind. The following is a list of guiding rules we try to follow.

1. Activities and classroom projects are kept short, for the slow learner's attention span is limited, and even 10 minutes is a long time for some activities.

2. Lessons are focused on large ideas, and the factual data needed to illustrate or explain these ideas are held to a minimum.

3. Students are given instruction on how to use the dictionary, even though they have had this instruction before, and they are given drills and games based on certain selected words which they are to look up and define. They are encouraged to use the dictionary at home as well as in class. They are required to keep wordlists and to make up sentences using words they encounter in their reading. Whenever words come up in discussions or in reading in class, a few minutes are devoted immediately to an explanation.

4. Instructions are given students almost daily in how to read, with time and attention given to pronunciation, to spelling, and to understanding. For example, students are asked to read aloud and then to explain in their own words what they have read. Or, they are assigned a paragraph for homework which they are to explain.

5. New assignments or class projects are ex-

plained in detail with special emphasis and repetition so that everyone understands. Nothing is left to chance, nothing is assumed. Even the most simple directions are explained. *Tips and suggestions are given on how to do the work and how to approach the problem.*

6. Since students who are bewildered and confused are apt to be emotionally unstable, special care is taken to make no demands upon them which they cannot meet, at least in part.

7. Instructions are given students on how to study, and the boys and girls are frequently required to do a "homework" lesson in class under the supervision of the teacher.

8. Students are given a number of library assignments during the course of the year. The librarian provides special help for the slow students. Instructions are given as to where to look and what to do when the right material cannot be found readily. Special instruction is given on how to gather material, how to sift it, and how to use it.

9. Care is taken to set goals which the students can reasonably be expected to reach. In other words, material is watered down somewhat.

10. Liberal use of pictures, film strips, slides, movies, and supplementary aids put out by such companies as U. S. Steel, Republic Steel, the Coal Institute, *National Geographic*, etc., are used in class. The Social Studies Department has gathered a special file of such materials.

11. Mimeographed maps and worksheets are used whenever possible. Place geography is emphasized by the use of wall maps, textbook maps, and blank mimeographed maps which are labeled and colored in class. A number of our units or projects are entitled, "Let's Take a Trip." From a previously prepared list of places, students select the one they would like to visit. They then gather the information they would need were they to make such a trip.

12. Last, but not least, our principal, Mr. Edward F. Jerrow, and our department head, Mr. Basil A. Bailey, have cooperated by attempting to keep classes small, and by allowing teachers a large amount of freedom in the selection of textbooks and other teaching aids. Without this freedom, an effective slow learner program would be difficult, if not impossible.

Although we do not accomplish all we would like to accomplish, we do feel the program has been worthwhile. But we haven't yet solved the most serious problem of all—how to keep slow learners in school after they reach the age at which they are free to leave.

Generalizing in the Social Science Classroom

Samuel H. Jones

THE familiar phrase "Generally speaking," when used by adults who know what they are talking about, is just another way of saying "without going into particulars." Thus, when one Washington press correspondent tells another that "Generally speaking, the Democratic Eighty-fourth Congress has supported the President's program," he means simply that both men know in detail what measures the President called for and what ones specifically were supported in Congress. There is no need to go into particulars. The phrase is used deliberately as a short cut to save time, and each man expects the other to exercise some judgment in applying the generalization. The conversationalists do not report to each other what each one knows exceedingly well. They would not think of enumerating particulars to each other for the same reason that we would not allude to the alphabet by reciting it. We all know its content and the word, "alphabet," serves to signify that well-known content.

Scholars and specialists use such short cuts in communication among themselves steadily. They substitute, for the tacitly understood "without going into particulars," such words and phrases as the following: "generally speaking," "roughly," "more or less," "to some extent," "for the most part," etc. Thus, one historian remarks to another that Napoleon made "roughly" the same error that Louis XIV made in that both rulers divided their efforts between conquest on the Continent and conquest beyond the seas. The word "roughly" serves in place of a detailed account of the similarities which the historians know full well from their study of the lives of Louis and Napoleon.

Dr. Jones, an Assistant Professor of Secondary Education at Los Angeles State College here discusses the values and limitations of generalizations, and gives concrete suggestions for helping students to understand and use the generalization most effectively.

But language bypasses are luxuries to be used safely only by those persons who have already undergone the hard labor of learning a topic thoroughly. Political arguments by persons who are not informed in politics soon fall apart when one is asked to substantiate his view. Anyone can parrot a generalization from his favorite newspaper or magazine. The real test comes when the reader is asked to give force and substance to his view by adducing the relevant particulars which support it.

William James, perhaps, has pointed up the central core of this matter most clearly and sharply: "No one can see any further into a generalization than his knowledge of detail extends." If James is correct, then it follows that scholars and specialists with abundant detail at hand can see deeply into the meaning of a generalization, whereas those who are uninformed do not grasp anywhere near its full significance. For the latter, the generalization is *meaningless*. The error occurs, this writer believes, when the noun, "generalization," is taken to have the same meaning whether the actual generalization is stated by one who knows the detail which supports it or, and this case is far different, by one whose knowledge of detail is scanty or even, in some instances, non-existent.

The important question for the social science teacher arises when he asks himself what he is doing in his classes to help students grasp the difference between carefully formulated, well documented generalizations, on the one hand, and the mere, empty parroting of another person's statements, on the other.

One is reminded of the often-repeated story of the youngster who wrote on his test paper, "The American Revolution wrote angry letters to the French Revolution." The teacher, at first thunderstruck, after considerable cajoling and argument, was able to trace this very valuable bit of information back to his own statement in class, "The American Revolution corresponded roughly with the French Revolution." This student was trying to make some kind of sense out of a gen-

eralization which had no content—no supporting details.

Students repeatedly are bombarded by statements rich in meaning to those who know the facts but which are quite empty and dull to those who are ignorant of the content. Is it any wonder that students yawn when they hear that "Martin Van Buren's fiscal policy was essentially the same as his predecessor's, Andrew Jackson's?" Do the students know what Van Buren's fiscal policy was? Jackson's? What could have a more soporific effect on students than the prospect of comparing and contrasting two unknown quantities? It is equally exciting and enlightening for students to be told that President Johnson patterned his reconstruction policy upon the earlier policy developed by Lincoln.

With a little deliberate effort on the part of the teacher, however, social science pupils can be taught to recognize generalizations that are solidly grounded. The task invests the teacher with leadership responsibilities.

In the main, the procedure for grounding a generalization in fact consists of separating out a generalization and then examining it in the light of the following four questions: (1) Is the generalization testable? (2) Are the data that are uncovered accurate? (3) Are the data relevant to the generalization? (4) If the data are accurate and relevant, then, do they challenge or support the generalization?

The foregoing points relative to examining a generalization must be elaborated and illustrated.

In order to separate out a generalization, one might first define the term: A generalization tells us that something is true of the subject of a sentence in a *limited* number of cases. Perhaps this last point can best be clarified by comparing a generalization with a universal proposition. A universal proposition asserts that something is true in *every* case. For example, "All United States senators are citizens of the United States." The judgment that United States senators are citizens of the United States holds true in every case. Moreover, the proposition is easily testable just by going to the records. A generalization, on the other hand, is a particular proposition that purports to say that something is true of the subject of a statement in a *limited* number of cases. The reasons why the number of cases is limited are two: (1) Upon examination, some of the cases may prove to be true and some others false. For example, it is generally true that hard

liquors may be manufactured and distributed in the United States. The statement is not true, however, with regard to all geographical areas in the United States. The cases are limited. (2) The second kind of limitation of cases is acknowledged but not considered in this writing. Some propositions are true with respect to all the cases that have been examined, as for example, in the statement that red giant stars are larger than the earth. The statement is true. But what about the billions of stars the astronomers believe lie outside the range of our most powerful telescopes? All one can say is that *probably* all red giants are larger than the earth. Similarly, when all observable cases have been examined and a proposition can be declared true with respect to a number of cases and false in regard to a number of others, all one can do is to calculate the probability of true or false instances when additional data may be examined. Presently the writer is not at all concerned with the calculation of probability but with the first kind of generalization cited above that permits examination of all cases so that one can make judgments about whether the generalization is carefully formulated and whether it fits the facts reasonably well.

So we see in the kind of generalization under scrutiny here that A almost always points to B. Or redheads nearly always have fiery tempers. Or the political party out of power is most likely the states rights party whether it is the Democratic party during the long period of Republican domination (1861-1933, Cleveland and Wilson excluded) or the Republican party in the twenty years of Roosevelt-Truman power. Two things tend to go together: *A* and *B*. *Redheads* and *fiery tempers*. *Parties out of power* and the *states rights doctrine*.

Once the generalization is ferreted out and isolated for careful investigation, the examiner might well turn to the first question. Is the Generalization Testable?

At least four kinds of statements which are wholly or almost wholly untestable are commonly heard in classrooms. The four forms are these: (a) a statement of preference, or of liking or disliking; (b) a declaration of hope; (c) a statement of personal opinion; and (d) a proposition that in P. W. Bridgman's language is "footless."¹

Experienced social science teachers have en-

¹ P. W. Bridgman. *The Logic of Modern Physics*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948.

countered innumerable instances of student remarks which were totally "unencumbered" by relevant data. For example, Johnnie states that the United States *should* not enter into mutual-defense agreements with foreign powers. And Ted declares further that the United States *ought* to refuse arms assistance to foreigners. Neither Johnnie nor Ted has expressed a proposition that can be tested by the facts. Instead, the words *should* and *ought* may be taken as signs that the speaker is expressing approval or disapproval of the state of affairs around him. *Should* and *ought* are sure signs that a given statement is a value judgment. There is nothing to test unless one is interested in finding out whether the students really feel the way they say they do.

Similarly, likes and dislikes of things to come are expressed in human hopes. The student who cherishes his conviction that the fluoridation of public water supply is sure to come has not supported his view. Occasionally lame support is offered indirectly as, for example, in the argument that fluoridation of public water supply is as proper as government inspection of the public meat supply. The argument has some cogency. But it is not aimed directly at the heart of the matter. It would be more useful to know what fluoridation does to water and how the water, in turn, would affect public health. The student's hope is hardly the place to begin a search for knowledge.

A third kind of statement that is not testable is a personal opinion. Opinions are almost always prefaced with a phrase containing some form of the personal pronoun *I*.² We hear students in our classrooms venture opinions daily: "*I* think that government should keep out of the power-service industry." Or, "*It seems to me* that the truckers ought to pay a larger share of the cost of highway maintenance." Or, "*In my opinion*, public education will suffer unless people begin to provide more buildings and prepare more teachers." The members of a class might be casually interested, but it is not a matter of great consequence for the class to know (or at least to be told) that *I* think, or something seems to me, or that *I* hold an opinion about something. It would be much better to examine the subject matter of my opinion than to examine my statement that *I* have an opinion.

²The egocentric quality of opinion was first called to the writer's attention by Alan F. Griffin, Professor of Social Science Education, The Ohio State University.

Finally, after a declaration of likes or dislikes, a statement of hope, and egocentric opinion, a fourth kind of untestable proposition is the sort that P. W. Bridgman calls "footless." A footless proposition does not allow the tester to "get hold" of it. The communist idea, for example, that "Democracy contains the seeds of its own destruction" defies proof or disproof. Similarly, how does one prove that Teddy Roosevelt was the architect of his time, or the opposite view, that irrepressible events made Roosevelt famous? All one needs in order to test the ideas is to have history relived *without* Roosevelt in order to gain a basis for comparison!

Social science teachers must be constantly on guard against the hopeless task of trying to lead an examination of unexaminable expressions of fondness or distaste, hope, personal opinion, or "footless" propositions.

Supposing, then, that a generalization is set forth and that it appears to be free from the common barriers to examination. Then, the second question might be in order: Are the data accurate?

The *facts* must be accurate if the generalization that they support is to be of any value. If one generalizes, for example, that more rain falls in the state of Michigan in April than in any other month, the statement will depend almost entirely for its worth on the source of the information. Accurate reports from the weather bureau could substantiate the generalization. Hearsay or faint recollection, however, would be untrustworthy and yield a fraudulent generalization.

Finally, questions *three* and *four* may be taken together: Are the data *relevant* to the generalization? If the data are relevant, do they *support* or *challenge* the generalization?

Assuming that a testable generalization has been uncovered and that accurate data are available, then the data must be brought to bear on the generalization with the following questions in mind: Are the data relevant to the generalization? If the data are relevant, do they challenge or support the generalization? In order to illustrate, the charge which was often made by President Jackson's enemies will serve very well: "King Andrew has dominated the federal government during his terms in the Presidency from 1829 to 1837." In order to ground the generalization in a solid basis of fact, the statement must be examined in the light of relevant data to see whether the generalization fits the facts. The fol-

lowing, rather conspicuous incidents in the public life of "Old Hickory" usually are reported in at least one chapter of general histories under a heading that refers to Jacksonian democracy. The task for the social science student then would be to sort through the reported facts (the data) of Jackson's public life to see: (1) which data are relevant or irrelevant, and (2) which of the relevant data support or challenge the generalization that "King Andrew has dominated the federal government during his terms in the Presidency."

THE DATA

1818—*Jackson hanged two men.* Jackson hanged two alleged insurrectionists in Spanish Florida.

1829—*To the victors belong the spoils.* The spoils system was greatly extended. Jackson, between the years 1829 and 1837 dismissed as many as 20 percent of the presumably competent office holders in order to make room for partisan supporters.

1829-1837—*The party machine.* The spoils system served as a basis for building party machines. Loyal, hard-working members of the rank and file could be rewarded and disobedient persons could be punished, while, at the same time, Jackson's party could use its advantages to perpetuate itself in office.

1829-1837—*The veto power.* Jackson vetoed 12 bills during his incumbency, whereas, all six of his predecessors together vetoed only nine. Moreover, he was the first President to use the "pocket veto."

1830—*The Maysville Road Bill.* Jackson vetoed the Maysville Road Bill. The proposed road improvement from Maysville to Lexington in Kentucky was a segment of the old Natchez Trace and a part of an over-all, inter-state road development to the lower Mississippi. Jackson, although generally known as a friend of the Westerners who ardently supported the bill, vetoed the measure on the grounds that it was probably unconstitutional and entailed a lavish and unnecessary expenditure.

1832—*The United States Bank.* The United States Bank was declared constitutional by Marshall in *McCulloch v. Maryland*, but Jackson vetoed the bill and "overruled" the judges: "Each public officer who takes an oath to support the Constitution swears that he will support it as he understands it, and not as it is understood by others. . . . The opinion of the judges has no more authority over Congress than the opinion

of Congress has over the judges, and on that point the President is independent of both."

1832—*Jackson defies the courts.* "John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it." These words, imputed to Jackson, expressed his deep feeling against a Supreme Court decision which held that the laws of Georgia were of no effect within the borders of the Cherokee Nation.³

1832—*Jackson answers Calhoun.* When South Carolina declared the tariff laws of 1828 and 1832 "null, void, and no law," and not "binding upon this State, its officers or citizens," Jackson made his response abundantly clear: "Tell them [the South Carolina nullifiers] from me that they can talk and write resolutions and print threats to their heart's content, but if one drop of blood be shed in defiance of the laws of the United States, I will hang the first man of them I can get my hands on to the first tree I can find." The "first man" was the chief of the nullifiers and the Vice-President of the United States. He commodiously maintained offices in the Capitol within easy reach and not far from conveniently located trees just outside the windows. (It is not surprising that soon afterward Vice-President Calhoun resigned.)

1836—*The Specie Circular.* Jackson brought a sharp halt to the furiously expanding speculation in western lands by the issuance from the executive office of the Specie Circular. This executive order demanded that all lands purchased from the national government must be paid for in gold or silver.

THE JUDGMENTS

Once all the data in the "universe of discourse," to borrow the logicians' term, are brought into focus, the judgments must be made in answer to the already enumerated two questions: Which data are relevant? Which of the relevant data support and which challenge the generalization, "King Andrew has dominated the federal government during his terms in the Presidency from 1829 to 1837?"

The first datum (1818—Jackson hanged two men) is a statement about a U. S. Army General. It is not a statement about a President "during his terms" and therefore the datum is judged *IRRELEVANT*.

The second datum (1829—To the victors belong the spoils) is a little more difficult. The present writer judges that the spoils system was

³ *Worcester v. Georgia* (1832).

used by a politician to maintain himself and his friends in office. But political appointments, although misused to reward partisan services, are also a Constitutionally authorized function of the Chief Executive office of the United States. Jackson knowingly and deliberately used his office as President to increase his own power and his party's. Therefore, the second datum is *RELEVANT* and *SUPPORTS* the generalization.

The third datum (1829-1837—The party machine) like the preceding, reflects Jackson's willingness to use his public office to augment his and his party's dominion over public life. It is, therefore, *RELEVANT* and *SUPPORTS* the generalization.

The fourth datum (1829-1837—the Veto power) reveals Jackson's willingness to exercise his power to veto bills passed by the Congress, and to exercise that power to a greater extent than all his predecessors combined. This datum, then, is *RELEVANT* and *SUPPORTS* the generalization.

The fifth datum (1830—The Maysville Road Bill) tells us that President Jackson vetoed the Maysville Road Bill, thus overriding the wishes of Congress and his friends in the West. This fact then is *RELEVANT* and *SUPPORTS* the generalization.

The sixth datum (1832—The United States Bank) portrays Jackson's indomitable personality. No matter that the Supreme Court ruled that the Bank was constitutional, Old Hickory decided that his office was independent of both the courts and the Congress, and furthermore, that the Bank was not good for the nation. The sixth one, then, is *RELEVANT* and *SUPPORTS* the generalization.

The seventh datum (1832—Jackson defies the courts) allowed the old Indian fighter a double pleasure. He could "explode" in the face of a court decision and show his dislike for the Cherokee Indians. The datum, however, is very difficult for this writer to classify. Perhaps one would not be far wrong with the following appraisal: (1) Jackson's statement about Marshall, in the first place, is apocryphal. (2) Supposing that Jackson at least expressed some sort of antagonism toward the Court, his contentiousness would hardly stop the machinery of government. Most likely the laws of the land were enforced with or without the personal support of the President. (3) Moreover, the Justices, in all probability, would only be irritated and redouble their efforts to increase the power of the courts. It might be

fair to say that although Jackson *personally* remonstrated against the Court's decision, his outburst was unrewarding. This datum, therefore, is judged *RELEVANT* but *CHALLENGING* to the generalization.

The eighth datum (1832—Jackson answers Calhoun) is a vivid portrait of Jackson's fiery temper. His threatening determination led to the passage of the Force Bill and the repeal of the South Carolina Nullification Ordinances. This one is judged *RELEVANT* and *SUPPORTING*.

The ninth datum (1836—The Specie Circular) suggests a stubborn bullheadedness. Jackson destroyed the United States Bank; he encouraged the "wildcat" state banks and the "paper" economy; and then he delivered a crushing blow in the form of the Specie Circular. Paper money was no longer good enough. Land must be paid for with hard metal. Jackson had his way and the nation had the Panic of 1837. The ninth datum is judged *RELEVANT* and *SUPPORTING*.

In summary, the nine data were adjudged as follows: The first was declared irrelevant. The seventh was considered relevant and challenging or conflicting. All the other seven data were judged relevant and supporting. *Generally speaking*, Jackson did dominate the federal government during the eight years he served in the Presidency.

The whole point of this writing, then, is this: The *meaningfulness* of the generalization about Jackson's conduct in office is in *exact* proportion to the student's understanding and command of the enumerated particulars which undergird it.

In our classrooms, students express generalizations frequently. One student has grounded his statement in carefully examined fact. Another has just "picked up" the idea somewhere. It might be handy to have when one wants to impress someone, or perhaps, to pass an examination. The difference is not in the ostensible quality of the generalization. Instead, *the worth of a generalization depends upon the way it was determined*. One person dug hard to get his. Another just happened to come across one. It is what students do before they start talking that counts.

If we have more than one set of operations, we have more than one concept, and strictly there should be a separate name to correspond to each different set of operations.—P. W. Bridgman.

What Other Journals Are Saying

Harris L. Dante

PSYCHOLOGY CLASS IN HIGH SCHOOL

(The following description of the psychology course in the Oshkosh [Wisconsin] High School, is from an article, "Psychology Class in High School—An Adventure in Adolescence," by Jessica Schneider in the April 1957 issue of *THE WISCOUNCILOR*, a publication of the Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies.)

At the beginning of the semester, when students are new to each other and the teacher, the class is introduced to psychology through a unit on heredity and environment. It gives students a chance to get the feel of the class and to gain confidence and trust in the group. They are able to reveal as much or as little about their own lives as they wish. There is always the opportunity to discuss a film about family life, people in the news, neighbors, or friends.

These basic understandings lead into a more personal vein of learning in a unit on Emotions and Understanding Yourself. Anxiety, fears, hostility, loves, happiness, both positive and negative feelings, are encouraged expression. There is real catharsis in getting feelings into the open and resolving them in group interaction. Defense mechanisms which cover up our real feelings and help us live with our problems are discussed on a personal level. It is easier to use the defense mechanism than it is to work toward what we want to be.

Emotional health, emotional maturity, and emotional problems are recognized as the very warp and woof of life. Articulation of feelings about their own lives often comes hot and fast.

Intelligence is a highly prized asset in our schools. Because of the need to recognize the many mixed up feelings about intelligence, a unit on You and Your Mental Abilities is included in the course of study. Students are given an opportunity to express their concern about their own intelligence grades, teachers' estimates of their intelligence, and the feelings generated when one takes an intelligence test. Frequently students find fault with their study habits more than with their ability. This may or may not be realistic, but generally high school seniors are not critical of their own ability.

Approximately the last six weeks of the semester are devoted to Marriage and Family Life and Vocations. These are the areas of learning which have tremendous appeal to students. It is toward the end of the course that the knowledge, insights, changes in behavior begin to show themselves. The subject matter of Family Life and Vocations is intensely personal to most high school seniors. It is here where behavior counts. The knowledge, the facts, the real learning shows itself in the way the student reaches decisions involving these two all important areas of his life—marriage and vocation.

SOCIAL STUDIES GROUP REPORTS

(In February, 1957, *THE EDUCATIONAL PRESS BULLETIN*, a publication of the Illinois Office of Public Instruction, carried a tentative report by Richard G. Brown of a project known as *The Study Group on the Social Studies*. This project was sponsored by the Allerton House Conference on Education and carried on jointly by the Illinois Curriculum Program and the University of Illinois. Dr. Brown's report was reprinted in *THE COUNCILOR*, the journal of the Illinois Council for the Social Studies. The following excerpts have been drawn from the latter publication.)

What did we find in the schools of Illinois? We found among many people, particularly among our colleagues in other departments, some confusion as to the scope of the social studies. Some people were obviously irritated by this confusion, an irritation which almost amounted to animosity.

Our group has defined the social studies as those subject-matter areas which lay stress upon man in his relationships with other men. Traditionally these studies include the fields of history, civics, economics, sociology, and geography. Recently, attempts have been made to integrate some of these areas of instruction into courses known as social studies, social problems, American problems, community civics, etc. Now and then schools have experimented with courses which endeavor to correlate instruction in the social studies with literature or the language arts.

Elementary schools often integrate the social studies with the teaching of such subjects as art, music, and the language arts.

The group found many locally developed programs in the social studies of very high quality. In fact, it is the conviction of the social studies group that the school system which develops its own basic social studies program from kindergarten through high school is likely to have better instruction in the social studies than a system which does not. The inservice training value of curriculum planning on the part of the teaching staff and the administration appears to be exceedingly high.

We found great controversy with respect to the social studies program at the junior high school level. The committee recognizes and approves the experimentation that is taking place in the social studies program in the junior high school and believes further experimentation to be desirable.

We found an increasing concern in the colleges for the training of social studies teachers. During the period of our study some colleges have introduced at the graduate level new courses that are specifically designed to improve the preparation and effectiveness of elementary and high school teachers. All of the colleges we visited showed a desire to strengthen their training programs and an awareness of the importance of providing broad subject-matter preparation.

Perhaps the most important of all our findings is the observation that the quality of the social studies program depends chiefly upon the quality of teaching in the social studies classroom.

The role of the social studies teacher in the school classroom is changing, and the changes must be taken into account in organizing the training program. Formerly, the role of the teacher was entirely a didactic one: he instructed the pupils in the subject matter. The teacher still teaches, but this traditional role is being gradually reduced in favor of newer practices under which the pupils are required to prepare projects, research papers, group reports, and panel discussions. In some respects, the role of the teacher becomes less prominent as he becomes a director and moderator of the group and individual activities of the pupils. (However, there is still need for the teacher to maintain good order in the classroom.) This trend in the role of the teacher puts a greater burden upon his ingenuity and skill than did the former didactic one. Many teachers seem unable to master the new techniques. The teacher who

is unable to handle them well often becomes merely a person who listens to student recitations of what they have learned while preparing assignments from the textbook or library.

NEW APPROACHES TO THE SOCIAL STUDIES

(These Ten Commandments of improved social studies instruction are excerpted from an article by F. M. Wilhoit of Mercer University, which appeared in the December 1956 issue of THE REPORTER, a publication of the Georgia Council for the Social Studies, and was reprinted in the March 1957 issue of THE NEW ENGLAND SOCIAL STUDIES BULLETIN.)

Commandment One. Stimulate the student's intellectual curiosity and sense of wonder. Unless these are constantly stimulated, even the brilliant student becomes bored.

Commandment Two. Approach the social studies as an art, not as a science. Objectivity is, of course, to be sought in all instruction; but it is perhaps just as important to tickle the student's fancy as to elevate his mind.

Commandment Three. Emphasize ideas rather than mere facts. No student is truly educated—no matter how many facts he may have in his head—until he can bat ideas around meaningfully, compare them, analyze them, and exercise sound judgment in choosing between alternative ideas that compete for his allegiance.

Commandment Four. Develop constantly the student's geographical sense. At the very least this will entail constant reference to maps and atlases.

Commandment Five. Imbue the student with a sense of time. Giving the student an orderly chronology of the great events of the past is more significant than having him learn by rote 200 great dates of history.

Commandment Six. Stress always the unity of the social studies. The inter-disciplinary approach can be as effective on the high school level as on the college level.

Commandment Seven. Stimulate the student's reading in periodicals and collateral works. Such publications as *Harper's* and *Atlantic* are not too advanced for the inquiring student.

Commandment Eight. Help the English teacher improve the student's writing ability and his spelling. This will necessitate the use of at least occasional essay or subjective tests. Too many students remain "pentied."

Commandment Nine. Get the student to

(Concluded on page 370)

Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies 1956-1957

Alice W. Spiescke

This listing is the ninth annual supplement to the 48-page bulletin published in September, 1949, by the National Council for the Social Studies (see Alice W. Spiescke, *Bibliography of Textbooks for the Social Studies*, Bulletin 23, September 1949, and the subsequent annual supplements appearing in *Social Education*). Copies of the bulletin may be obtained for 75 cents each; reprints of the supplementary listings, 10 cents each. Send your orders to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

The present listing also includes brief annotations. These annotations were prepared by the following individuals: Adelene E. Howland, Director of Elementary Education, Mount Vernon (N.Y.) Public Schools (for the elementary school books); Margaret Kurilecz, formerly a junior high school social studies teacher in Dobbs Ferry (N.Y.), now in the American College for Girls, Istanbul, Turkey (for the junior high school books); Isidore Starr, a social studies teacher in Brooklyn (N.Y.) Technical High School (for the senior high school books).

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

History

MACMILLAN ELEMENTARY HISTORY SERIES. By Edna McGuire. Macmillan.

- a. *They Made America Great*; x + 302 p.; \$2.52; 1957 (1950). Identified as "A First Book in American History," for use in fourth grade, this volume presents its subject matter through brief but interesting stories of persons who contributed to the development of America. Children should enjoy the personalized treatment that has been given to the events and persons who had an influence on United States history. Excellent map and color illustrations in both black and white add to the effectiveness of the volume. Fine study guides and helps for children under such headings as: "Did you know?" and "Can you tell why?" appear at intervals. A word list and pronunciation guide will help the nine-year-old reader.
- b. *The Story of American Freedom*; x + 445 p.; \$3.08; 1957 (1955, 1952). This book covers the history of America from the first visit of the Norsemen to the Presidency of Eisenhower. Excellent maps and interesting picture charts help to clarify the text. There are good study aids and self-help activities. A word list, index, and some historical data conclude the volume.
- c. *Backgrounds of American Freedom*; x + 438 p.; \$3.08; 1957 (1953). This book presents the familiar old world background content. Actually only the title has much to do with American freedom as we know it. The volume covers the history of man from early times through Co-

lumbus' explorations. Good maps and interesting black-and-white illustrations that contribute to the understanding of the text are numerous. A limited use of color appears. Good study aids make it possible for students to organize the information presented.

Geography

LANDS AND PEOPLES OF THE WORLD SERIES. Series adviser Robert M. Glendinning, cartographic adviser Richard Edes Harrison. Ginn.

- a. *The United States and Canada*, by Katherine Thomas Whittemore; viii + 408 p.; \$4.48; 1957. This is a new fifth grade geography of the contemporary United States and Canada. It is attractively printed with numerous full-color pictures. The maps are designed to help develop and explain textual material. Some may feel, however, that a few of the maps are rather technical for fifth grade boys and girls.
The approach used in this text is new. The standard east-to-west study of our country has been abandoned in favor of a beginning in the agricultural interior. From this base, units take the students west, south, and finally east. This technique may provide for some difficulty where the text is used in a social studies curriculum that attempts to trace the historical development of the United States.
- b. *Latin America, Africa and Australia*, by Marguerite Uttley and Alison E. Aitchison; x + 406 p.; \$4.48; 1957. This is a new text which introduces the lands and peoples of the Southern Hemisphere to sixth grade boys and girls. Good balance has been maintained in length of units

in dealing with the continents and countries. Factual material seems accurate. Some teachers may wish the authors had provided greater help in the activity program. Questions at the end of sections and units are largely devoted to factual recall exercises rather than activities which develop relationships and concepts.

OUR NEIGHBORS GEOGRAPHIES. Winston. Each book supplemented by: teacher's manual; workbook; answers for workbook.

c. *Neighbors in the United States and Canada*, revised edition, by J. Russell Smith and Frank E. Sorenson; viii + 312 p. + atlas of 16 maps; \$3.96; 1957 (1954, 1951). This is a very good fifth grade geography of the United States. There are many maps, charts and diagrams to illustrate and clarify the text. Statistics are clear and pertinent. Illustrations fit the text and are well placed. There is an atlas at the end of the volume and an index that includes pronunciations. Frequent suggestions of activities for children make this very practical.

The section on Canada is limited. The material is good, but there are only 40 pages devoted to our northern neighbors. Throughout the volume the produce maps are very small and will need interpretation by the teacher.

d. *Neighbors in the Americas*, revised edition, by J. Russell Smith and Frank E. Sorenson; viii + 408 p. + atlas of 16 maps; \$3.96; 1957 (1954, 1948). The publishing company considers this an optional text for fifth grade. It contains the same materials as *Neighbors in the United States and Canada* with the addition of 29 pages on Mexico, Central America and the West Indies and 61 pages devoted to South America. The treatment of these countries is good but limited. Our comments on *Neighbors in the United States and Canada* are equally applicable to this text.

e. *Neighbors in Canada and Latin America*, by Norman Carls, Frank E. Sorenson, and Margery D. Howarth; viii + 294 p. + atlas of 16 maps; \$3.92; 1956 (1951). This geography text for grade six is very useful as far as Latin America is concerned. The treatment of Canada is brief with only 33 pages devoted to our northern neighbors. There are excellent maps, charts, and diagrams. An atlas, an index and pronunciation aids are very helpful. At frequent intervals there are opportunities for guiding learning that requires both individual and group activities. The economic emphasis in this text is especially good.

RAND McNALLY SOCIAL STUDIES SERIES. Rand McNally.

a. *Around the Home*, by Laura M. Hugley and Jane McGuigan; vii + 192 p.; \$3.12; 1957 (1954 by Wallace R. McConnell and Laura M. Hugley; 1947 *Geography Around the Home*). Sup-

plemented by: workbook. New and long ago provide the content for *Around the Home*. Although classified as a third grade geography, both historical and geographic concepts are included with the addition of a bit of elementary economics. Children will enjoy the personalized stories and the black-and-white illustrations.

It is surprising to find no maps or charts in such a book. The activities for children and teaching aids are also limited. This seems to be a supplementary rather than basal text.

b. *Many Lands*, by Jane McGuigan and Laura M. Hugley; vi + 248 p.; \$3.48; 1957 (1952 *Geography of Many Lands* by Wallace R. McConnell; 1945 *Geography Around the World*). Supplemented by: workbook; geography manual and key. This fourth grade geography with its emphasis on homes includes regional studies, ranging through jungles, deserts, and mountains, from the Mediterranean to Asia and Australia. The black-and-white illustrations are excellent. A bit of color adds interest. There is a fine section on the use of globes at the beginning of the book and there are some study helps for children included. However, there seems to be a very limited use of maps and global representation in a text designated as a geography.

SOCIAL STUDIES FOR CHRISTIAN LIVING: for Catholic Schools. Winston.

a. *Neighbors and Faith in Latin America*, by Rt. Rev. Msgr. Edmund J. Goebel, Norman Carls, Frank E. Sorenson, and Margery D. Howarth; viii + 260 p. + atlas of 16 maps; \$3.88; 1957. Supplemented by: teacher's manual; workbook; answers for workbook. This geography text is useful for sixth grade. Throughout the volume there are excellent maps, charts, and diagrams. An atlas, an index and pronunciation aids are very helpful. At frequent intervals there are opportunities for guiding learning that require both individual and group activities. The economic emphasis in this text is good.

Fusion or General Social Studies

BLENDED GEOGRAPHY-HISTORY SERIES. By Emlyn D. Jones, J. Warren Nystrom, and Helen Harter. Rand McNally. Each book supplemented by: teacher's manual; workbook.

a. *Within Our Borders*; viii + 408 p.; \$3.96; 1957. The publishers indicate that this fifth grade book is a blend of history and geography. As such it presents the history of the United States by sections and includes Alaska and Hawaii. There is considerable emphasis on the geographic aspect. The work with maps and globes is excellent. The section for children called the workshop is weighted toward geography and provides some good activities. This is an interesting volume and should prove useful to children.

- b. *Within the Americas*; vii + 472 p.; \$4.20; 1957. This book includes most of the contents of *Within Our Borders* together with a very brief presentation of Canada, North America and South America. For those schools that teach both North and South America in fifth grade there is enough of South America to whet interest but not enough to give a complete picture. Excellent work with maps and globes has been provided. The historical side of North America is less apparent than the geographic but is well done in a limited fashion.

CURRICULUM FOUNDATION SERIES: THE BASIC SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM. Scott, Foresman.

- b. *At School*, by Paul R. Hanna and Genevieve Anderson Hoyt; reading advisor William S. Gray; 96 p.; \$1.40; 1957. Supplemented by: teacher's edition. The second book in the social studies program of Scott, Foresman and Company is to be used in the second half of the first grade and relates exclusively to school activities. The teacher's guide provides rich material for extending the contents of the textbook. Some attention is given to the correlation of social studies with other school subjects. The vocabulary follows the Scott, Foresman basic reading series.

FOLLETT NEW UNIFIED SOCIAL STUDIES SERIES. Follett.

- j. *Exploring American Neighbors*, by William H. Gray, Ralph Hancock, Herbert H. Gross, Dwight H. Hamilton, and Evalyn A. Meyers; 384 p.; \$3.96; 1956. Supplemented by: teacher's guide; directed activities (pupil's workbook) and teacher's edition (with answers); unit tests and key; project wall maps. This is a very attractive colorful book that presents information about our neighbors to the north and to the south. While it is called a unified book, it is particularly strong in its geographic emphasis. There are excellent maps, frequent references to charts and diagrams and much illustrative material that makes the text meaningful. The very first part of the book is an eight page atlas. Wherever necessary, foreign words are pronounced and defined in an excellent fashion. Some history is included with interdependence as a major theme. Frequently throughout the text there are activities for the children that help them to think, evaluate and coordinate what they have been learning. This is a book that children would select of their own accord and enjoy reading on their own. The book includes an appendix with encyclopedic information.

SCRIBNER HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES SERIES. Scribner.

- a. *Working and Playing*, by Clyde B. Moore and Dorothy E. Cooke; 128 p.; \$2.16; 1957 (1950). This is a very simple little book about activities

at school. It would have value as a supplementary aid to a first grade social studies program. There is one brief section that introduces an economic experience for six-year-olds. There are helpful suggestions for the teacher as she uses the book with groups of children.

- b. *Visiting Our Neighbors*, by Clyde B. Moore and Dorothy E. Cooke; 160 p.; \$2.28; 1957 (1951). *Visiting Our Neighbors* can be used in a second grade where a social studies program includes units on helpers. The content includes information about farms, dairies, mills, bakeries and services such as mail, police, and fire protection. There is an interesting section on a State Fair. The best units have to do with the fire station and a bookmobile, a service that is rarely mentioned in primary books.

A bit of economics is introduced but would need careful presentation inasmuch as the only method of payment for goods and services is the use of a charge account.

There are some suggested activities for children and suggestions to the teacher included in *Visiting Our Neighbors*.

- c. *Building Our Town*, by Clyde B. Moore, Gertrude M. Lewis, Fred B. Painter, Helen M. Carpenter; 288 p.; \$2.40; 1957 (1950). Third grade pupils should find this an interesting social studies book. The introduction to the teacher outlines the five stages of development that are presented through a historical review of a community from primitive Indian life to the present day. Many social understandings are introduced. The book gives a very good overview of conditions leading to the growth of a community.

There are recommended activities for children at the end of each unit. There is only one map in the book which is largely history rather than geography. There is considerable emphasis on economics and the importance of co-operation in a community.

- f. *Building Our Hemisphere*, by Clyde B. Moore, Loretta Klee and Sallie B. Marks; 497 p.; \$3.20; 1957. This book contains a great deal of information and many photographs about Canada, Central America and South America. It would be a valuable reference book for a fifth or sixth grade class studying the Western Hemisphere. Each unit is self-contained so that the book need not be used in consecutive order. This makes it possible to adapt it to any program. Very interesting photographs add character to the countries described. There are some maps and helpful time charts. Workshops scattered throughout the book provide opportunities for pupils to stop, evaluate and clarify what they have been studying. Wherever necessary, foreign words are pronounced and defined in an excellent fashion. A list of resources and an index increases the usability of this book.

SINGER SOCIAL STUDIES. By C. W. Hunnicutt and Jean D. Grambs. Singer.

- a. *I Play*. 64 p.; \$1.60; 1957. *I Play*, written at primer reading level, is the first in a new social studies series. The content begins with the school and experiences there. It then proceeds to the home and family. A simple text provides a background for the seven basic themes and understandings listed at the end of the book.

This little book is unique among recent social studies texts in that the experiences are realistic and childlike and present unfortunate or unpleasant happenings that do occur in the life of a child. Suggested ways of improving behavior follow the true to life incidents. The skills of map and diagram reading are begun. A "companion book" provides activities to strengthen the text.

- b. *I Live with Others*; 128 p.; \$2.12; 1957. This is the second book in the Singer Company social studies series, designed to be used during the latter half of the first grade. A "companion book" may be used to deepen the understandings presented. *I Live with Others* includes discussions of helpers through stories about farms, stores, mail service and travel. Emphasis is given to desirable attitudes concerning co-operation, responsibility, and honesty. This book, like the primer, presents negative as well as positive behavior in order to promote growth in action and thought on the part of the children using it.

- c. *I Have Friends*; 192 p.; \$2.28; 1957. *I Have Friends* is the second grade social studies text. Both history and geography are begun in an easily understood fashion. The experience of parents as contrasted with those of children provide the history. Maps and blue prints give opportunities for learning to read symbols. The content includes discussions of schools, farm life versus city life, house building and transportation. Desirable attitudes and understandings to be emphasized are outlined for teachers at the end of the text.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

American History

HARTMAN: *America: Land of Freedom*, second edition by Gertrude Hartman; with educational consultant Charles C. Ball and general consultant Allan Nevins; in History on the March Series; xvi + 734 p.; Heath; \$4.48; 1957 (1955, 1952, 1946). Supplemented by: teacher's guide; workbook. This newest edition of an authoritative high school text on the history of the United States carries the story up to the end of 1956, anticipating the 1957 crises in Hungary and the Suez Canal. Prepared with the advice of Allan Nevins as general consultant, this book is rich

in stories loaded with anecdote and excerpts from sources. The profusion of fine pictures, the wealth of colorful maps, and the use of interesting and illuminating sketches make *America, Land of Freedom* one of the most attractive and satisfying of textbooks. It has much to offer the high school student whose picture appears on its cover.

MOON AND MACGOWAN: *Story of Our Land and People*, by Glenn W. Moon and John J. MacGowan; x + 662 p.; Holt; \$4.96; 1957 (1955, 1949, 1948, 1944, 1938, Moon, *Story of Our Land and People*). Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual; tests; answers to workbook and key to tests. This conventional treatment of the history of the United States stresses two themes: that America is a land of freedom and that it is a land of opportunity. Written in simple sentences with important points carefully numbered and giving the pronunciation of important names, this book is obviously designed for a sixth grade or a low level seventh grade. It is abundantly illustrated and its numerous appropriate and highly readable maps are an attractive feature. The teacher can also be grateful for the excerpts from source materials and the chapter summaries, the time lines, as well as the suggested word, reading, and story activities that supplement each chapter.

Civics and Citizenship

ARNOLD AND BANKS: *Building Our Life Together*, by Joseph Irvin Arnold and Dorothy J. Banks; 743 p.; Row, Peterson; \$3.60; 1956 (1951). The authors of this book have devoted themselves to the realization of the "four great groups of objectives," identified in the report of the Educational Policies Commission of the NEA, namely: the objectives of self-realization, the objectives of human relationship, the objectives of economic efficiency, and the objectives of civic responsibility.

After explaining the scope of their study and their plan for encompassing it, the authors introduce each area of study with a story incident, followed by full exposition of the topic. Each chapter offers supplementary reading and film lists and suggests appropriate individual and group projects. The approach is earnest, thorough, and somewhat dull for junior high school students. There is no workbook or teacher's manual.

Geography

COLVIN AND COLVIN: *Geography in Our Modern World*, by Minna Colvin and Woolf Colvin, xii + 434 p.; Cambridge Book; \$1.85 cloth, \$1.35 paper; 1956 (1955, 1954). Supplemented by: question book; key to question book; key to textbook tests. For the ninth grader studying the

modern world, this textbook provides a matter-of-fact, almost encyclopedic account in a compact, paper-backed volume. Eight regions of the world: the U.S.S.R., the Far East, Western Europe, the Mediterranean Basin, Africa, Australia and New Zealand, Latin America, the United States and Canada, are discussed fully from the standpoint of history, geography, politics, and economics. Beyond this, the interrelationships and interdependence of these areas are established. A final section on economic citizenship completes this helpful account of the modern world.

RAND McNALLY SOCIAL STUDIES SERIES. Rand McNally.

- f. *Geography and World Affairs*, by Stephen B. Jones and Marion F. Murphy; vi + 398 p.; \$4.28; 1956 (1953, 1950). Supplemented by: workbook; geography manual and key. In a very readable style, this book addresses itself to the high school pupil, attempting to make him a more understanding citizen of the world by showing him how geography sets the stage for world affairs and how world affairs are acted out on that stage. It surveys in this fashion five great areas of the world which have some logical unity: the Soviet Union (Eurasia), the western coastlands, the eastern coastlands, the oceans, and the American nations. By supplying information to serve as a foundation for intelligent participation in world affairs, it aims at the improved social and civic behavior of the pupil. Tests on context, skills and the development of socially desirable attitudes are supplied at the end of each chapter and a final "atlas section" contains a variety of beautiful and informative maps.

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

American History

GAVIAN AND HAMM: *The American Story*, by Ruth W. Gavian and William A. Hamm; viii + 736 p.; Heath; \$4.56; 1957 (1954, 1951, 1947, 1945). Supplemented by: teacher's manual. This is the latest edition of a book designed for the slower student. The treatment is chronological and the teaching aids, including the bibliography, were prepared especially for the slower readers.

HAMM: *From Colony to World Power: A History of the United States*, by William A. Hamm; viii + 896 p.; Heath; \$4.80; 1957 (1953, 1950, 1947, 1942, 1938 *The American People*). Supplemented by: workbook. This new and completely revised edition utilizes a chronological frame of reference in place of its former method of topical treatment of specialized problems. Foreign affairs is still presented as a unit. The book is rich in factual detail and contains useful teaching aids.

HARLOW AND MILLER: *Story of America*, by Ralph Volney Harlow and Ruth Elizabeth Miller; 608 p.; Holt; \$4.68; 1956 (1953). This is a chronological history of our country in eight units, the first three of which take us through the Civil War. The style is simple and clear. The book features time lines of American and World history, highlights of presidential administrations, and brief annotations on our Constitution.

MUZZEY: *Our Country's History*, by Davis S. Muzzey; x + 710 p.; Ginn; \$4.72; 1957. Supplemented by: teacher's manual, including audio-visual aids; workbook for pupils; unit and final tests. This is the latest version of a well-known chronological history of our country. Among its useful teaching aids are timetables of contemporary events at home and abroad, famous American quotations, a topical analysis of the text, and colorful maps and charts.

Economics

FAIRCHILD AND SHELLY: *Understanding Our Free Economy*, 2nd edition, by Fred R. Fairchild and Thomas J. Shelly; xi + 589 p.; Van Nostrand; \$4.20; 1956 (1952).

GOODMAN AND MOORE: *Today's Economics*, by Kenneth E. Goodman and William L. Moore; viii + 632 p.; Ginn; \$3.96; 1957. Supplemented by: workbook; tests. If you are looking for a thorough and comprehensive treatment of the traditional subdivisions of economics (production, consumption, exchange, distribution, and government), this is the book for you. The study aids at the end of each chapter, the self-checking cumulative review tests which follow each of the nine units, and the illustrative materials should prove useful to both students and teachers. Greater attention to such historic events as the New Deal, to the influence of the ideas of some of the "worldly philosophers," and to such newer concepts as imperfect and monopolistic competition would have added to the value of this text.

Geography

BRADLEY: *World Geography*, revised edition, by John H. Bradley; viii + 584 p.; Ginn; \$4.80; 1957 (1954, 1951, 1948, 1945). Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual and key. This revised edition pursues its theme of the functional interdependence of peoples and places through six units: the nature of modern geography, climate, the surface of lands, natural resources, life processes of civilization, and the geography of nations (seven chapters). A special section on how to use maps, a glossary, and an organized bibliography will be welcomed by all teachers of the subject. However, one wonders whether page references to check-up questions at the end of chapters are desirable teaching aids.

POUNDS AND COOPER: *World Geography*, fifth edition, by Norman J. G. Pounds and Edward L. Cooper; viii + 632 p.; South-Western; \$3.52; 1957 (1950, *World Economic Geography*, by York, Rowe, and Cooper; 1940, 1934, *Economic Geography*, Staples and York; 1928, *Factors in Economic Geography*). Supplemented by: workbook; tests; teacher's manual. This latest revision of *World Economic Geography* is divided into six parts: the human habitat, foodstuffs and industries, the United States, the rest of the New World, Europe, and the rest of the Old World. Each of its 60 brief chapters is designed to be used as a lesson. Although the book is only in black and white in contrast to the colorful publications in this field, it seems to be a business-like and useful tool for teaching.

Government

BRUNTZ: *Understanding Our Government*, by George G. Bruntz; viii + 550 p.; Ginn; \$4.20; 1957 (1955). Supplemented by: workbook tests; teacher's manual. The first eight units of this useful text explain the structural and functional organization of the local, state, and federal governments, while the last two deal with seven specific problems of American democracy: budgets, banking, business, labor, agriculture, foreign policy, and the U. N. Distinguishing features are the colorful charts, apt summaries, up-to-date bibliographies, and end-of-chapter exercises which attempt to develop research, analysis, and action skills, as well as desirable attitudes. A more detailed treatment of human rights would have added to the value of the book.

DIMOND AND PFLIEGER: *Our American Government*, by Stanley E. Dimond and Elmer F. Pflieger; xvi + 608 p.; Lippincott; \$4.20; 1957. The first five units represent a detailed treatment of the topics associated with local, state, and federal governments; the sixth unit contains four chapters on the role of the United States as a world leader; and the concluding unit examines the role of government in agriculture and conservation, business and labor, education and social welfare, and housing and crime. The book is rich in useful teaching

aids and stimulating illustrative materials. The treatment of human rights is skimpy.

MAGRUDER AND MCCLENAGHAN: *American Government*, by Frank A. Magruder and William A. McClenaghan; xii + 754 p.; Allyn and Bacon; \$4.52; 1957 (yearly from 1917). Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's key to workbook; tests; key to tests; teacher's manual. This 1957 edition brings up-to-date a widely known textbook that was carefully rewritten in 1956. The nine units emphasize the basic structure of American government and its functional character. The writing is clear and concise, the illustrative material pertinent, and the teaching aids numerous and useful.

Problems of Democracy

HALL AND KLINGER: *American Democracy*, by J. Oliver Hall and Russell E. Klinger; x + 592 p.; American Book; \$4.40; 1957. Supplemented by: teacher's manual and key.

KIDGER AND DUNWIDDIE: *Problems Facing America and You*, by Horace Kidger and William E. Dunwiddie; vii + 636 p.; Ginn; \$4.32; 1956 (1955, 1953, 1950, 1940 by Horace Kidger). Supplemented by: a series of unit, semester, and final tests. Originally published in 1940, this latest revision is a well-organized, clearly written, amply illustrated, and up-to-date survey of the political, economic and social problems rooted in American democratic life. The two distinguishing features are the introductory unit dealing with techniques of critical thinking and the brief historical background notes preceding each of the problems discussed. The topic of minorities is inadequately treated. The illustrative materials, though conventional, should prove practical.

Sociology

QUINN AND REPKE: *Living in the Social World*, third edition, by James A. Quinn and Arthur Repke; 536 p.; Lippincott; \$3.92; 1956 (1948, 1942). Reviewed by Richard E. Gross, *Social Studies*, May 1957. p. 177-8.

WHAT OTHER JOURNALS ARE SAYING

(Continued from page 364)

understand events and personalities rather than to condemn them out of hand. It is more important that the student learn to explain, comprehend, and fully understand the great events of the past than to divide the heroes of history into saints and devils.

Commandment Ten. Remember always that the purpose of teaching is to liberate the student's mind, not to indoctrinate it with pet prejudices. Every teacher has a message, but the message will get across more effectively to the student if it is not tooted.

Notes and News

Merrill F. Hartshorn

The Expanding Program of NEA Service

About 6,000 delegates from the local and state affiliated organizations voted at the Philadelphia Convention of NEA to increase NEA dues from \$5.00 to \$10.00. This conclusion came after careful and widely-shared discussion—national, state, and local—extending throughout the country and over a period of nearly two years. Broadly speaking, this decision was based on the conviction that urgent problems, national in scope and vital in importance, now confront American education. The organized profession, it was agreed, cannot meet these problems without an expanded program and greater financial resources.

Membership dues in the National Education Association have not changed since 1948. Meanwhile, teachers' salaries have been increasing—and NEA deserves a good deal of credit for this trend. But the costs which the National Education Association itself must meet have also gone up sharply.

When the NEA headquarters is completed in 1958 there will be nearly \$6 million invested in the building. This sum does not include the value of the land on which the building stands or the cost of the furniture and equipment. Annual interest payments on the debt assumed by the Association to complete the new building may, during the early years of indebtedness, be as high as \$120,000.

Ownership of a fine new building relieves the Association of the necessity of paying rent, but it must assume the cost of maintaining and safeguarding its investment. To keep the new building in excellent condition, as delivered by the contractor, will require an increase of about two-thirds over former maintenance costs. Since the new building provides adequate floor space per employee, it will cost more to clean, heat, and light. A building depreciation fund of not less than 2 percent of the cost of the building must be set aside.

The National Education Association now has more than 60,000 life members. Their initial payments made it possible to construct the new

building, and their continuing installments should erase the debt over the next ten years. Meanwhile, these life members are receiving services as all regular active members do, but their payments must go to the building fund rather than to the annual operating fund.

Expanded services. The NEA budget for 1957-58 provides the first steps in carrying out the expanded program approved by the Board of Directors in July, 1956 (see *Social Education*, May, 1957, p. 227). The budget for 1957-58 allows realistically for the fact that time will be required to recruit and to select the additional staff needed for the expanded program. It anticipates a series of new and strengthened services to the members, provided, of course, that the dues increase has no adverse effect on the steady growth of NEA membership.

The areas in which expansion of the Association's activities and services is contemplated during 1957-58 are as follows: legislative and state relations, field operations and membership promotion, lay relations, professional development and welfare, educational services, and business management. Also adequate reserves must be maintained to meet the unanticipated expense and establish a "war chest" to meet emergency problems which may arise at any time.

Central California

The fall meeting of the Central California Social Studies Association will be held at Sacramento State College on December 14. All interested teachers in the field of the social studies are cordially invited to attend. E.C.

New England Association

The New England Association of Social Studies Teachers joined the Harvard Teachers Association in a joint meeting on March 23 at Harvard University.

The meeting opened with a coffee hour and an opportunity to view an exhibit of free and inexpensive teaching aids. After the business meeting an address was presented by the Director of the Service Center for Teachers of History,

George Barr Carson, Jr., on the topic, "The Service Center: Its Purposes and Functions." The Committee which planned this joint meeting consisted of Sister Marion of Wellesley; Frances Moran, Arlington public schools; Ann O'Neil, Boston public schools; Edward Brooks, Medford public schools; William Edmunds, Cambridge public schools; and Mary Hall of the Somerville public schools.

The May meeting of the NEASST featured Kendall A. Birr of Amherst College, who spoke on the topic, "The Problems Approach to American Studies at Amherst College"; and Louis Mainzer of the University of Massachusetts, who spoke on the subject of "A Knowledge of Politics." The Kidger Award was presented personally by Horace Kidger to Edward Merrill. Speaker at the luncheon meeting was Robert Solomon of the Educational Testing Service. Mr. Solomon discussed "Recent Developments in Testing in Social Studies."

The program committee for the May meeting included Edmund Traverso, Amherst Junior High School, chairman; Theodore Caldwell of the University of Massachusetts; and David Tavel of Boston University.

President of NEASST is Anna Hawthorne, Providence public schools; the Vice-President is Charles R. Keller of Williams College. W.L.O'L.

Illinois

The Illinois Council held its spring meeting on April 26-27 at Northwestern University. The theme of the meeting was: "Trends in the fields of social studies during the last ten years."

After an opening coffee hour and an opportunity to view an extensive exhibit of educational materials, the meeting formally opened with a dinner meeting at which the speaker was Henry Steele Commager.

At the business meeting Clarence Stegmeir of Thornton was elected President. Albert W. Brown was re-elected Vice-President; Myrtle M. Behrens, Highland Park, was elected Secretary; Dorrell Kilduff, Berwyn, was elected Treasurer.

After the business meeting, section meetings were conducted relating to the theme of the meeting in the areas of geography, economics, elementary education, political science, history, and sociology. These section meetings were then followed by a joint session of all groups with panel speakers.

The luncheon speaker was Carl S. Winters of Oak Park. He spoke on the subject of "Opportunity—Humanity."

M.B.

Connecticut

The Connecticut Social Teachers' Association held a spring meeting at The Teachers College of Connecticut in New Britain on April 27. The general theme of the meeting was "Teaching About Asia in Our Schools." Victor E. Pitkin of the State Department of Education spoke on the subject as "Asia in the Connecticut Schools." There was also a discussion of "Problems of Far Eastern Nations" and, after luncheon, round table discussions of the over-all theme.

D.W.H.

Wisconsin

"Labor Unions in Wisconsin" was the theme of the spring meeting of the Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies held on May 4 in Madison. Arnold Zander, president of the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees spoke on the topic, "Labor Unions in Wisconsin." John Wrage, Personnel Manager of the Gisholt Machine Company, discussed the topic "Management Looks at Labor Unions." Following lunch, four teachers on different levels of instruction described successful units on labor unions. Resource materials on labor unions were distributed prior to adjournment.

K.S.

Westchester County Council

The Westchester County Council for the Social Studies (New York) is cooperating with the New York State Department of Education in offering a course in "Supervision in the Social Studies." This course is being presented particularly for chairmen of social studies departments and is open to anyone interested in the area of secondary social studies instruction.

Another activity of the Westchester County Council was cooperation with the New York State Teachers Association in sponsoring a panel discussion at the United Nations during the NYSTA's Southeastern zone meeting, October 25.

I.E.

All social studies and social studies organizations are cordially invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your items as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, NCSS, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Esther Caldwell, Wilfred L. O'Leary, Myrtle Behrens, Dorothy W. Hamilton, Kenneth Sager, and Irwin Eckhauser.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

Education

Over-crowded schools, colleges that soon will be bursting at the seams, the increasing cost of education, integration, and the changing educational needs of business and the professions—all of these have served to involve youth and the lay public more intimately with the problems and processes of education than ever before in our history. The study of education in secondary schools should therefore be of real concern to students. Soon, if they are not already doing so, they will be participating in the formation of social policy relating to the many problems of education. But, in addition to preparing themselves for meeting this civic responsibility, secondary school students are continually faced with making decisions concerning the kind of education they will pursue in the years that lie ahead.

Gone are the days when one must turn only to professional journals for articles on education. During the past couple of weeks, we have found stimulating articles on the problems and values of education in four magazines written for the general public. And the pamphlets press is making its contribution, as can be seen in three titles recently released by the Public Affairs Committee. (Public Affairs Pamphlets have a 28-page format, sell for 25 cents each with discounts for quantity orders, may be purchased on a subscription basis, and may be ordered directly from Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 East 38th St., New York 16.)

The first of these Public Affairs Pamphlets is *Liberal Education in an Industrial Society*. It was written by David A. Shepard, a member of the board of directors of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, and emphasizes the great need in business and elsewhere for the kind of an education that leads to an understanding of people—the need, therefore, for a liberal education, one that gives real attention to the humanities and the social sciences.

But college is not the only road to success and

education. *So You Didn't Go to College* provides encouragement to capable youth who for one reason or another are unable to attend college. While it is harder to get an education without going to college, this Public Affairs Pamphlet admits, it is also true that, "A college diploma is less important, as far as jobs go, than ability, imagination, and energy."

Written for the Public Affairs Committee in cooperation with The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, *A Guide to School Integration* outlines the kind of preparatory action that is needed in the community and sets forth the responsibilities of the schools themselves in easing the transition from segregation to integration.

(Other Public Affairs Pamphlets released since they were last reviewed here include: *Water Fluoridation: Facts, Not Myths*; *Cell Examination—New Hope in Cancer*; *Allergy—A Story of Millions*; *The Modern Mother's Dilemma*; and *What is Marriage Counseling?*)

The serious problems that will soon confront us in the field of higher education are carefully analyzed in *Crisis in Higher Education* (Public Affairs Press, 419 New Jersey Ave., S.E., Washington 3; 60 p. \$1), and in *Second Report to the President* (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25; 108 p. 55 cents) by the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School.

Bibliographies

Particularly for those who are just starting collections of pamphlet materials, catalogs from pamphlet publishers can be extremely helpful. Here are some that we have received during the past few months.

SRA Educational Catalog (Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Ave., Chicago 10) includes a full listing of the many SRA booklets that have been widely used by social studies teachers.

Their 1957-58 catalog of *Educational Aids for Schools and Colleges* is available from the National Association of Manufacturers (2 East 48th St., New York 17).

A *Catalog of Publications and Services* can be obtained from the Foreign Policy Association (345 East 46th St., New York 17), which is probably best known among social studies teachers for its monthly Headline Series of 35-cent pamphlets.

The Cooperative League of the U.S.A. will send upon request a list of pamphlets and other materials published by, or available from, The Cooperative League (343 South Dearborn St., Chicago 4).

Selected Readings on Labor-Management Relations for High School Students and Teachers is available from the Distribution Center, School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University (Ithaca, New York).

Countless students of American history are familiar with the Old South Leaflets which first appeared 70 years ago and consist largely of reproductions of important original papers, accompanied by useful historical and bibliographical notes. Today nearly 200 of those leaflets are in print and cost only twice what they cost when the series originated. For a complete list of titles, write the Old South Association (Washington and Milk Streets, Boston 8). At ten cents each (or \$4 for 100) these leaflets provide a rich source of documentary material relating to colonial America.

A free *Bibliography of Railroad Literature* may be obtained from the School and College Service of the Association of American Railroads (Transportation Building, Washington 6).

Government Publications

The following titles can be purchased only from the United States Government Printing Office (Washington 25).

Trading Stamps and the Consumer's Food Bill (9 p. 10 cents) considers chiefly information available from non-Government sources concerning the response to and economic implications of trading stamp plans. This is a good pamphlet for students studying consumer problems.

Mature students and teachers should find useful information in *Housing in the Economy* (44 p. 30 cents). However, nearly 30 pages of this pamphlet are devoted to statistical data that have limited value at the secondary level.

Employment and Economic Status of Older Men and Women (41 p. 20 cents) is another

largely statistical report designed to provide background information for those concerned with the economic and employment problems of the aging in our population.

Issued annually, the 1957-58 edition of the *United States Government Organization Manual* (\$1.50), the official handbook of the Federal Government, is now available. This highly useful reference covers the creation and authority, organization, and functions of all branches of the Government. The material in the manual has been approved by the departments and agencies themselves and includes the names and titles of key administrative officials.

Mutual Understanding in the Nuclear Age (42 p. 20 cents) describes the goals and operations of the International Educational Exchange Program.

The title of *NATO: Its Development and Significance* (61 p. 30 cents) describes its contents accurately. In the appendix is the text of the North Atlantic Treaty.

By the time this appears, free kits for teaching about income tax and tax returns should be available. Including posters and sample forms as well as a variety of other teaching aids, the kits are available in both general and farm type. For information concerning these kits, write your nearest District Director of Internal Revenue.

Miscellaneous Materials

A couple of years ago the state of Illinois brought out *Social Studies Teaching Aids for a Stronger America* (106 p.), a resource unit that was one of their Our World of Flight Series. This has been reprinted and is now available for general distribution at \$1 per copy from the National Aviation Education Council (1025 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington 6). Replete with a multitude of suggestions for effective teaching, this resource unit has four major sections: "Civil Aviation: A Major American Industry," "Airpower for National Security," "Airways to World Understanding," and an "Annotated Bibliography" that cites an abundance of printed and audio-visual aids.

The World of Steel (Public Relations Dept., United States Steel Corp., 71 Broadway, New York 6; 32 p. free) was written for junior high school social studies classes and has been revised and tested for effectiveness as a teaching aid by Helen McCracken Carpenter. Beautifully illustrated, this pamphlet considers the development of steel production and presents a non-technical account of the process of steel manufacture.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

How We Live in America. A series of nine films on economics. The American Economic Foundation, 295 Madison Avenue, New York 17.

I have just completed a preview of nine films designed to make fundamental economics both intelligible and interesting. To be sure, I'm a little late in catching up with this program, for these films have been available to the general public for almost five years. Only recently, however, have they been made readily accessible to schools. A committee of schoolmen under the leadership of Ben O. Wood of Columbia University has adapted the discussion material for use in secondary schools, and Frank Fairbanks of the Baltimore City schools has written a teachers' guide to help point up class discussions. The films are sponsored by leading American industries. They may be leased for a nominal fee from the American Economic Foundation or they may be rented. Write to the above address for the rental source nearest you.

The films have the following provocative titles: "How We Got What We Have," "What We Have," "How to Lose What We Have," "Let's Face It" (Part I and Part II), "Backfire," "How to Keep What We Have," "It's Your Decision" (Part I and Part II). Each film poses a problem in economic understanding, presents this problem dramatically in terms of everyday people, and ends with a challenge to the audience to discuss the problem in the light of the facts presented in the film.

A better understanding of the nature of the films in this series may be obtained from an analysis of a typical example. The film, "How We Got What We Have," for example, begins with scenes contrasting our American form of government with that run by a dictator. To further appreciate the advantages we possess, the film takes an average American husband and wife and their baby and shows their twentieth century advantages. The scene then changes to a time when all our wealth—our farms, industries, and houses—everything is wiped out. The family finds itself in a wilderness without equipment of any kind. The man tries to provide for the needs

of food, clothing, and shelter. He succeeds in gathering berries, and catching some fish by hand. He meets another man who has a stone knife and a fire. After an argument they agree to swap one fish for the use of the fire and the knife. We are then led into an understanding of the importance of tools, of freedom, of working together, of having a form of government which encourages free enterprise. The audience is challenged to discuss among themselves the importance of these concepts.

Each film develops important economic ideas. In "What We Have" we learn about the value of money and how money may be earned. In "How to Lose What We Have" we see how life would be if a master state took over in America. Other films discuss "cost," "tools," "human energy," "incentive," "inflation." In each instance the meaning is put in terms of the average man. In "Let's Face It" the problem of cost revolves around the price of a baby carriage. There are facts aplenty. Each fact is carefully explained and illustrated.

From watching these films your reviewer got the impression of a "hard sell" for the American competitive system. The situations set up were, however, so challenging that youngsters and oldsters should get a kick out of the discussions which will follow the film showings. A complete analysis of each film in the series, along with information concerning how to obtain them, may be obtained from the American Economic Foundation.

Motion Pictures

British Information Services, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

The Lake District. 19 minutes; color; rental, \$6. This area, which encompasses part of Lancashire, Westmoreland, and Cumberland Counties in the northwest corner of England, is the shrine at which pilgrims still pay respects to Wordsworth and his fellow poets.

An Impression of London. 14 minutes; color; rental, \$4.50. This is an account of the round-the-clock activities of a typical London day as described by a young American girl as she records the impressions of her visit in her diary.

Cambridge and Oxford. 9 minutes; color; rental, \$3. A visit to Cambridge and Oxford universities with their architectural beauty, impressive quadrangles, undergraduates in picturesque gowns, and colorful processions.

Cornet Films, Cornet Building, Chicago 1.

The Boyhood of George Washington. 11 minutes; sale: apply. This re-creation of Washington's life from age eight through late youth will give pupils an excellent understanding of the background that influenced him and the character traits which were a part of his development. Shot on actual locations of Washington's boyhood, employing many properties which were used by him, and cast and costumed under the supervision of leading authorities in Washington.

The Philippines: Gateway to the Far East. 11 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$55; color, \$100. The past history, present activities, and direction of future growth in the Philippine Islands. Views of farm and city life, expanding production and increased education.

Life of a Philippine Family. 11 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$55; color, \$100. A Philippine family of a farm village illustrates the simple means by which these people meet their needs. The father tells of the daily life of the family. We see work in the rice fields, the children's chores, their schooling, games, and finally a birthday celebration.

Crusade for Freedom, 345 East 46th Street, New York 17.

Lifeline to Freedom. 14 minutes; free loan. The story behind a captive people's struggle for freedom from communistic rule is shown in a series of striking scenes. Shows indoctrination of children, the work of Radio Free Europe, and the struggle of Eastern nations for freedom.

Department of Visual Instruction, University of California, Los Angeles 24.

The Color of Man. 10 minutes; color; rental, \$3. Goes back in time to examine conditions which could be responsible for the development of color differences among primitive men. Chief among these conditions were mountain barriers and lack of transportation which for long periods of time isolated groups of people from each other. Those living in the equatorial areas where ultra-violet rays are intensive were able to survive only if they had the capacity to develop tiny particles in the skin which gave it a dark color and at the same time provided needed protection from burning and disease.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1144 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois.

Indian Family of Long Ago (Buffalo Hunters of the Plains). 14 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$62.50; color, \$125. This colorful film was produced at actual locations in South Dakota at the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation and at Custer State Park, in cooperation with members of the Oglala Sioux Tribe. We meet a Sioux family, see something of the everyday life of the tribe, go along on a buffalo hunt, and watch the members of the tribe cut up the meat and hang it on racks to dry. The skins are prepared for tanning. The film ends as the tribe moves its camp to follow the buffalo.

Dolls of Many Lands. 9 minutes; color; sale, \$100. A social studies film for the kindergarten or primary grades. Each group of dolls is dressed in folk costumes and shown in a setting which closely resembles some characteristic natural background of the doll's native land. The narration takes the audience on an imaginary trip through many countries of the world.

The Amazon. 21 minutes. Sale: Black-and-white, \$100; color, \$200. This story of the largest river in the world shows the people who live along the Amazon, describes the products of the region, and introduces the flora and the fauna of the river valley.

Ocean Tides. 14 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$62.50; color, \$125. Makes effective use of time-lapse photography to visualize the flow of the ocean tides at the Bay of Fundy.

The Renaissance. 25 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$112.50; color, \$225. Photographed entirely on location in Italy and France, this film traces some of the causes of the Renaissance and shows it to be a period of awakening and discovery, of scholarship, of art and science, and of human life. Examples of the art, inventions, and the re-awakening of interest in men are shown against a musical background and a well conceived and brilliantly executed narration.

Our Post Office. 11 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$50; color, \$100. Planned for the primary and middle grades, this film shows the addressing of an envelope, the sorting of the mail and the delivery of mail.

International Film Bureau, Inc., 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4.

Open Window. 18 minutes; color; sale: \$195; rental, \$12.50. Sponsored by the governments of Belgium, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom, this film presents a history of landscape painting from the fifteenth through the nineteenth centuries. It makes a journey through the countryside of five lands as their painters have seen it over five centuries.

A Day With the FBI. 18 minutes; sale: \$85. A behind-the-scenes documentary which shows the physical layout of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, its crime laboratory, filing system, and the training of a G-Man.

United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29.

Family Life. 20 minutes; sale, \$100. How the world's famous families met the problem of providing food, clothing and shelter. We see how spiritual beliefs bind family ties as they go to church and worship together. The different ways in which family living is carried on all over the world makes this an absorbing instructional film lesson.

Homes. 20 minutes; sale, \$100. Homes not only reflect the kind of area in which they are built, but also the culture of the people who build them. No matter where we live, the houses we build are homes in which families live. In this film we learn how each family uses the available natural resources as building materials and how geography and climate play their part in the choice of a home for shelter and protection.

Introducing Canada. 20 minutes; sale, \$45.45. One of the series of films describing members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Emphasizes Canada's historical background, geographical features, its economic and social life and the role of the country in NATO.

Latitude and Longitude. 9 minutes; sale: black-and-white, \$45; color, \$90. A transparent globe which gives the effect of third dimension is used to explain how latitude and longitude are measured. Lines are imposed on the globe, and the fixed position of a ship at sea is determined. The earth is seen in its entirety and special features are highlighted by animation.

Filmstrips

Dayco Publishing Company, 153 West Huron St., Chicago 10.

Full Color Picture Story of America. Set of 8 filmstrips in color; sale, \$40. Part 1, exploration and colonization; Part 2, French and Indian War to British surrender of Yorktown; Part 3, and the critical period to the Mexican War; Part 4, Civil War and Reconstruction; Part 5, rise of big business through the election of Woodrow Wilson; Part 6, First World War to the New Deal; Part 7, the thirties and entry into World War II; Part 8, D-Day to Eisenhower's re-election in 1956.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Illinois.

The Middle States. Set of 6 filmstrips in color. Sale, \$36. Cover the region including the states of Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, Illinois, Minnesota, Iowa, and Missouri. Titles are: "Natural Environment," "People and Their History," "Agriculture," "Industry," "Commerce," "Life and Culture."

The Northeastern States. Set of 6 filmstrips in color. Sale, \$36. Covers the region including the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. The titles are the same as those listed above under *The Middle States*.

Eye Gate House, Inc., Long Island City 1, New York.

Historic Cities of the East. Nine filmstrips in color; sale, apply. Titles are: "Bangkok, Thailand"; "Bombay, India"; "Hong Kong"; "Honolulu, Hawaii"; "Manila, Philippines"; "Delhi, India"; "Singapore, Malay Peninsula"; "Tokyo and Yokohama, Japan"; "Colombo, Ceylon."

Filmstrip House, 347 Madison Ave., New York 17.

Our Holidays and What They Mean. Set of 8 filmstrips in color; \$36.00 per set, or \$6 each. Titles are "Columbus Day," "Thanksgiving," "Christmas," "Easter," "Washington's Birthday," "Lincoln's Birthday," "Independence Day," "Memorial Day."

The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Blvd., Detroit 11.

People and Goods Travel. A series of six primary grade filmstrips in color; \$30 per set; individual strips, \$5.25. Titles are "Airplanes," "The Passenger Train," "The Freight Train," "Buses," "Trucks," "Boats and Ships."

Visual Education Consultants, 2066 Helena Street, Madison 4, Wisconsin.

The Man on Your Money. Sale, \$3.50. Acquaints pupils with the men who appear upon the most generally used United States currency. It describes the important contribution made by each man to American history. The basic concept of thrift—save and have—is emphasized.

Hi, Neighbor. Sale, \$3.50. Demonstrates various projects, for large and small groups, in which children explore history and geography for a better international understanding. Produced in cooperation with the U. S. Committee for UNICEF.

Guides to Free Material

If you are ever in need of free motion pictures, slidefilms, or other curriculum materials, you should know about the excellent guides published by the Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin. First, there is the *Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials*. This guide is a complete, up-to-date, annotated list of free maps, bulletins, pamphlets, exhibits, charts, and books. More than 1,250 items are listed, 550 of them being new this year. The cost for this publication is \$5.50.

The Educators Guide to Free Films is now in its seventeenth annual edition. Listed are 3,880 titles of films which are free for the asking. It is completely indexed so that it is easy to find the film you are looking for. Among the films mentioned are those from industry, government, and philanthropic organizations. The price of this guide is \$7.00 per copy.

Did you know that there are a large number of filmstrips which are loaned to the schools or given to teachers outright at no cost. *The Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms* lists 674 titles. The cost of this guide is \$5.00.

Of All Things

Get hold of a copy of the Denoyer-Geppert Company's newest publication, "Successful Teaching With Globes" and enjoy a stimulating insight into meaningful methods of learning about the earth. Prepared by Clarence B. Odell, this new handbook is especially designed to help teachers to utilize world globes effectively in classroom instruction. The guide is profusely illustrated with color sketches and photographs. Order from Denoyer-Geppert Company, 5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40. Single copies \$1.25; 20 or more \$1.00 each.

Your local record dealer will have a copy of the RCA Camden record "I Hear America Singing." (CAL 367—\$1.98) Based on poems by Walt Whitman, this record is good motivation material for classes discussing American democracy.

Good sets of teaching pictures may be obtained from Realistic Visual Aids, Highland, California. These pictures are 14 by 17 inches in size, black-and-white photographs, and they sell for \$1.25 per set (about six pictures to the set). Titles include: "Early California," "The Community," "Trucks," "Trains," "Ships," "Airplanes," and "Across Early America." (24 pictures, \$2.98 per set.)

Notes on Books

Focus: Social Studies in Relation to Other Subjects

Edward T. Ladd

A Book for the Department Library

A TREASURY OF FOLK HUMOR. Edited by James N. Tidwell. New York: Crown Publishers, 1956. 620 p. \$5.00.

During recent years, social studies teachers have become cognizant of the rich heritage of American folklore and its potential worth in enriching learning in this area of the curriculum. This aroused interest has been nourished by several good anthologies and some specialized studies of American folklore, both general and regional.

This volume is a welcome addition to the growing number of collections of folk material. It is "a rare confection of laughter, tall tales, jests and other gems of merriment of the American people." From the earliest settlers to atomic-age "cliff-dwellers," Americans have all laughed at the humor represented in this book.

There are stories of Americans at work and play, in love and engaged in feuds, fishing, hunting, trading, and lying. Gleaned from many sources, some dating back to the 1790's, selections from this anthology provide warm entertainment. There are sections particularly concerned with the "savy" (know-how or horse sense), "sass" (backtalk with backbone), and "red-eye" (big talk) of Americans. Also included is humorous folk material relating to politics, religion, language, gambling, business enterprise, sports, farm and country life, school, law medicine, animals, love and family life, and workers. To know people well enough to laugh at their jokes is really to know them. This anthology of authentic folk humor helps Americans to understand each other.

Attention to folklore in the social studies, as well as in other fields of study, is necessary for a more complete picture of the life and times of people. Humor gives us easily the flavor of the folk and makes people, present and past, sympathetic and real.

O. L. DAVIS, JR.

Peabody Demonstration School
George Peabody College for Teachers

Books to Use in Teaching

COMPTON'S PICTURED ENCYCLOPEDIA AND FACT-INDEX. Chicago: F. E. Compton and Company, rev. ed., 1957. 15 vols. (Various bindings) \$104.50 to \$139.50.

Many a reader of this journal must have spent hours of his childhood on a sofa or floor poring over the pages of early editions of this work. Browsing through the volumes of the most recent edition convinces one that many children and young people of today and tomorrow will do the same. For this encyclopedia invites reading. Prime attention in it goes, as the announced purpose suggests, to inspiring, stimulating, and arousing interest, and these ends seem to be so well provided for that it is surprising what a wealth of information is offered.

The entries, astonishingly many for a young people's encyclopedia, are separated into two divisions. Very short ones are at the back of each volume in the "fact-index," which, through the inclusion of summaries of the longer entries, becomes a complete reference work, to which, in fact, one should usually turn first. This ingenious device keeps the main body of each volume from being cluttered and fragmented. The appeal of the main body is enhanced, too, by the one or more pictures on practically every page, by full-page pictures, many in color, by imaginative charts, and by a wealth of maps. The latter, which include many new, simple, colored sketch maps showing where in a larger area a particular place is, are exciting to one who deplores American geographical ignorance and the inadequacy of the maps in most textbooks and classrooms.

The coverage is most impressive in cultural geography and natural science, but no area is slighted. Cross-references are wonderfully omnipresent. Throughout the volumes pleasant relief is given by scattered tid-bits of information, how-to-do-it instructions, and surprising entries like *Jack o'Lantern*. Even the most formal articles seem not to be overloaded with specialized information; a few might well give a little more.

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VAN NOSTRAND

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Many of the topics are treated in a refreshingly broad context. In some, one misses mention of what is just now the burning issue, for example, under *India* the question of Indian foreign policy.

The style of most articles is imaginative. That of some has been improved by rewriting; a few have been hurt where rewriting had to make pages come out even, so that adjacent pages could be printed from plates used in the previous edition. Rarely does the informality of the writing go over into stickiness ("Water is our oldest friend and a dependable servant"). Adult readers may wish that articles were signed.

Of the articles he read the writer particularly liked *Indians*, with its honest and fair treatment, *Labor*, and *The Nation and National Spirit*. *Social Studies* is unsuccessful: an interesting case approach is used, but the tendency is to preach a gospel rather than supply knowledge.

Like the style, the vocabulary level varies, but average ninth-graders and advanced younger pupils should have no difficulty with it, while it is acceptable for senior high students and adults. The pages are attractive, the type, except in article headings, is large and legible. The sub-headings and boxes of information are especially

welcome in a work as informal as this. All the entries under a given letter are put in one volume, which makes finding the right volume a little easier. The only quarrel the writer has with the format is with an ugly green and red binding.

The publisher supplies a 48-page teaching manual stressing especially the teaching of skills, which looks useful. This writer hopes that many teachers will have their pupils use the encyclopedia, and that, sharing his liking and respect for it, they will avoid associating it with unpalatable assignments, but will let it assert itself as a creator of interest and source of learning.

E. T. L.

●
MANKIND AGAINST THE KILLERS. By James Hemming. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1956. 231 p. \$3.50.

Here is a little book to whet the appetites of secondary-school readers, a fast-moving introduction to the dramatic story of man's effort to understand and combat disease. It is the story of detective work in scientific laboratories and of a world-wide campaign for better health.

James Hemming, teacher, lecturer, author, and member of the UNESCO National Com-

mittee for the United Kingdom, begins his book with a simplified scientific explanation of the nature of disease: how microbes attack the human body, and how dietary deficiencies cause crippling illness. Once the scientific detectives in their laboratories have discovered the cause of disease, the next step has been to cure or prevent the spread of disease. *Mankind Against the Killers* tells this story well.

But knowledge is only part of the battle against the killers. This knowledge must be spread around the world, and the necessary vaccines, insecticides, and antibiotics must be produced, distributed and used; foods must be processed differently or new foods added to diets to combat the diseases caused by dietary deficiencies. In the economically favored areas of the world, the discoveries of medical science in the fight against the killers have generally been applied relatively quickly. However, in those parts of the world where ignorance, poverty and superstition prevail, many obstacles stand in the way of the application of the new weapons that can be used so effectively in the battle against the killers. It is at this point that the World Health Organization plays such an important part, a part dramatically portrayed in the final third of Hemming's book.

Mankind Against the Killers treats a highly important subject and does so in a manner that should have considerable appeal to youth—and to many adults as well.

MANSON VAN B. JENNINGS

Teachers College
Columbia University

PICTORIAL HISTORY OF AMERICAN PRESIDENTS. By John Durant and Alice Durant. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1955. 320 p. \$10.00.

THE AMERICAN WARS: A PICTORIAL HISTORY FROM QUEBEC TO KOREA, 1755-1953. By Roy Meredith. Cleveland: World Publishing Company, 1955. 349 p. \$10.00.

THE GROWTH OF A NATION. By Emerson M. Brooks. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1956. 320 p. \$5.95.

Recent years have found an increasing number of large photographic volumes offered by book publishers. While most have been general pictorial reviews of American history, there has been a variety of specialized books, such as Lorant, *FDR: A Pictorial Biography*; Shub and Quint, *Since Stalin*; and McGaughey, *American*

Automobile Album. Naturally there have also been some on specific wars, such as the Civil War. The three books reviewed here are in the tradition that has been established. All are a foot high and about eight inches wide. The first and third are indexed. Each includes a good deal of textual material, explaining the photographs and giving continuity to the volume.

While these books are not produced for school use, teachers can gain educational help from them if funds are available to bring such volumes into the social studies laboratory or the school library. Often more fortunate pupils will volunteer to bring such books from home for individual perusal or committee use. They are, of course, often motivational for the uninterested and the slow learner. They have a wider appeal, however, for all of us like to know just how certain places and persons really looked. It is possible that an intriguing picture may lead a student to intensive reading about a certain event or personality. As actual source materials, they help make history real; a picture does provide a visual bridge where by experiences of the past become seemingly closer and certainly clearer for a learner born just a year or two previous to an "ancient" event like the attack on Pearl Harbor. Teachers will find such books as these helpful in orientation lectures, for overviews of periods, and for unit reviews, especially if selected pictures are covered for the entire class with the help of the opaque projector. Newer opaque projectors do not burn pages or tear them and handle more easily than some of the older types. Excellent class discussions can be evolved around the consideration of a series of photos.

One would guess that all of the most revealing old pictures have been combed out and used in previous volumes. These books present, however, a number of interesting and different photographs, many of which readers will not have seen before. In *The American Wars* the bulk of pictures are drawings and painting by contemporaries, many completed on the battlefields by servicemen engaged in the conflicts. Each war is introduced by several pages of explanatory text related directly to the pictures, which were selected by Meredith, who did such a fine job with the earlier pictorial, *Mr. Lincoln's Camera Man: Mathew B. Brady*. While many of the sketches and paintings have photographic qualities, others are less effective because of overly detailed, small reproductions, or because of the reduction of a colored work to black and white.

In spite of the many excellent portrayals included, the reviewer is inclined to vote for Frederic Remington as America's great military artist.

The Growth of a Nation attempts a social and economic, as well as the typical political photographic review. In a one-volume presentation the coverage is bound to be quite selective, and any reader can find areas or favorite pictures he would have included in what seems to be a "spotty" coverage. A narrower scope for single pictorial volumes will probably result in more effective books, such as *The American West: The Pictorial Epic of a Continent*, by Beebe and Clegg. Anyone interested in a more complete pictorial account of American cultural history is referred to Davidson's excellent two-volume publication, *Life In America*. The outstanding political pictorial survey remains Butterfield's *The American Past*.

Pictorial History of American Presidents covers much of the same ground as the Butterfield volume and Lorant's *The Presidency*, though Lorant included much more textual material about elections and administrations. It differs, however, from these other works in that it also includes photos or drawings of some of these leaders as youths or in their earlier political years. The reader is also regularly introduced to the wives of the presidents and may now decide, à la Lombroso, in terms of feminine looks and influence, on the successes or failures of certain presidents! This book helps the American past "live" via pictures of important contemporaries of the presidents and makes very effective use of cartoons. The reader is brought to the conclusion from studying the cartoons that, except for two or three current artists, the periods of the great cartoonists in American history are also past.

RICHARD E. GROSS

School of Education
Stanford University

On the Intellectual Frontier

COMMUNISM AND CHRISTIANITY. By Martin D'Arcy. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1956. 191 p. 65¢.

It is not unusual for some students when first introduced to the study of Communism to come to the hasty conclusion that there are similarities between Communism and Christianity; and indeed they are similar in the sense that they both present comprehensive philosophies. If, however,

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the analogy is pushed and students latch upon the phrase "brotherhood of man" which is used by both creeds, or if they observe that both Communism and the Christian religions have hierarchies, they may sweep to the conclusion that there is a high positive correlation between the two. At this point, in the view of the Reverend Martin D'Arcy, S.J., such students are involved in naïveté or basic misunderstanding.

Father D'Arcy, for years Master of Campion Hall, Oxford, has written a learned and partisan book reviewing and contrasting the basic tenets of Communism and Christianity. It is not a complete work, but it compares the two philosophies in their views on such central issues as: materialism versus other-worldliness, means versus ends, individuals versus the state, and the freedom of joining and departing from the ranks of believers. The book is enriched by the author's easy command of authorities ranging from early Christian times to the contemporary.

Books comparing Communism and Democracy are available in substantial number. Books comparing Communism and Christianity are not so frequently come upon. Father D'Arcy's little book helps fill the need.

MICHAEL O. SAWYER

Maxwell School of Citizenship
and Public Affairs
Syracuse University

Other Books to Know About

EDUCATION AND ANTHROPOLOGY. Edited by George D. Spindler. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1955. 302 p. \$5.50.

Among professional fields perhaps none has proved so receptive a host as education. In dealing with school problems, educators have long utilized concepts and approaches from a variety of disciplines, including philosophy, history, biology, economics, political science, psychology, and sociology. The volume under review focuses on the interrelationships between education and anthropology, and more specifically on the contributions, real and potential, of anthropology to educational theory and practice. It is an outgrowth of a 1954 interdisciplinary conference sponsored by the School of Education and the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Stanford University, and the American Anthropological Association.

Anthropologists are primarily concerned with education as the transmission and modification

of the cultural heritage of a society from generation to generation. They direct attention to the various social institutions through which the way of life characteristic of a society is mediated to the growing child; and to the roles of the teacher as cultural transmitter and innovator. Such perspectives are reflected in the constituent papers of this volume. The titles indicate the interdisciplinary emphasis: "Anthropology and Education: an Overview," by George Spindler; "Model for the Analysis of the Educative Process in American Communities," by Bernard Siegel; "The School in the Context of the Community," by John Gillin; "The Method of Natural History and Education Research," by Solon Kimball; "Some Notions on Learning Intercultural Understanding," by Cora DuBois; "Contrasts between Prepubertal and Postpubertal Education," by C. W. M. Hart; "Discrepancies in the Teaching of American Culture," by Dorothy Lee; "Culture, Education, and Communications Theory," by Jules Henry; and "The Meeting of Educational and Anthropological Theory," by Theodore Brameld. Discussion transcripts are included with the papers. Among featured discussants are Felix Keesing, Hilda Taba, Lawrence Frank, Margaret Mead, Fannie Shaftel, and Arthur Coladarci.

The papers are by design largely exploratory; yet they are stimulating and informative. The discussion, despite a neat packaging job by the editor, has a generous supply of the loose ends and dangling questions common to its species, and often seems to stop where it should begin; yet as far as it goes it is interesting and constructive. All in all, *Education and Anthropology* is well worth reading and buying. The articulations of education with the social and behavioral sciences have already produced the interdisciplinary fields of educational psychology and educational sociology. The Stanford-AAA compilation may turn out to be a significant milestone in the emergence of educational anthropology.

WILLIAM C. SAYRES

New York State Department of Education

The series of articles on what America will be like in 1980 and what it should be like with which *Fortune* magazine marked its twenty-fifth birthday is now available in a book bearing the title *The Fabulous Future* (Dutton, \$3.50). With Luceian skill, the predictions of the presidents of DuPont, the AFL-CIO, and Harvard are brought together with those of an unsuccessful

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candidate for president and other distinguished men in various fields of life. Only the church is missing, but Mr. Luce himself supplies at the end a readable piece, which, though smacking of Madison Avenue, serves as something of a sermon and benediction. The book is more interesting reading than it sounds: all its authors are intelligent, well-informed and, each in his own way, thoughtful. Their pieces tell us a good deal about our prospects, risks and potentialities, but more about our present selves. Here we see displayed our primary concern for the material base of our society; our equalitarian hopes for the distribution of the coming abundance; our concern—and our disagreements—about the distribution of power between business and government; and our conviction that sooner or later the whole of mankind must become organized to survive and live together. What we see in this mirror is not exactly inspiring, but it is not distressing, and despite the title it challenges our complacency.

In *On the Beach* (Morrow, \$3.95) Nevil Shute tells the story of a group of men and women in Australia who come together "down under" after

the entire Northern Hemisphere has been deprived of all life in a general nuclear war. The earth's winds are inevitably blowing the deadly radiation southwards, and it is but a matter of time until life is extinguished. How would people act, knowing that death was imminent for all? By and large, the people carry on as normally as possible, acting as if "it can't happen to ME." Perhaps the total acceptance of their fate by these people is meant to be symbolic of the fact that the people of the world right now are unthinkingly doing the same thing.

From a review by William G. Fletcher in the *Country Courier*.

You shouldn't overlook the new edition of Crown's *Changes in America* with photographs by Andreas Feininger. One can literally wallow in the variety and wealth of the scenes now well-known to most students and teachers and, with the aid of an opaque projector, if fortunate to possess one, take one's students on periodic tours. As for the artistically inclined, there are some powerful subjects to be translated into oil, watercolor or charcoal.

(J.W.E. in the New York A.T.S.S. Bulletin)

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